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MODERN WORLD SETTING FOR AMERICAN HISTORY

Biography

BY

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PREFACE

THIS book was planned to meet the requirements of a course introduced into the Junior High Schools of Washington, D.C., after a careful study both of the *report* of the N. E. A. Committee and of the *recommendations* of the Second Committee of Eight. This course in the modern background to our history presupposes that pupils have studied the earlier European background.

The N. E. A. Committee (1916) recommended that emphasis be placed on European History in the seventh grade of Junior High Schools. The Second Committee of Eight (1921) also stressed the importance of teaching American History in its "world setting" in the seventh and eighth grades.

Grade school pupils, generally, throughout the country have been taught the European background to our history up to 1776 only. The important background since the time of our Revolution has been disregarded so that eighth grade graduates have learned very little of the "world setting" of American History since this country became independent of England. As Modern History is generally an elective subject in Senior High Schools comparatively few Senior High School pupils make a study of the world problems of the last one hundred fifty years.

Modern History is altogether too complicated to be taught in a formal old-fashioned textbook way to seventh grade pupils. This book is in the nature of stories of the lives of great men and women. The stories are written with a view of interesting pupils and at the same time developing the idea of how each character influenced civilization. The illustrations are for the most part from photographs of famous paintings in the possession of the Library of Congress in Washington, D.C.

The course gives grade school pupils information of Modern History, something which is too rarely done in this country. It also prepares pupils for a more intelligent study of the history of their own country, for the reason that American History is to a large extent a history of our relations with other countries. This course in Modern European History, placed in the seventh grade of the Junior High Schools of Washington after a careful study of *recommendations* of National Committees, has proved most successful in practice.

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GEORGE J. JONES.

EMILY F. SLEMAN.

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HALL OF MIRRORS — VERSAILLES

The throne room of Louis XIV ; the scene of the proclamation of the German Empire in 1871, and the meeting place of the Peace Conference at the end of the World War in 1919.

Modern World Setting for American History

Biography

LOUIS XIV

1638–1715

IN the latter half of the seventeenth century France dominated all Europe in trade and colonial expansion. Her achievements in art, literature, and science overshadowed those of any other nation. The magnificence of her royal court was the envy of all other European monarchs. Much of the extraordinary prominence of France at this period was due to the character of her king, Louis XIV.

When Louis XIII died, the young prince was only five years of age, and so the power of the court was exercised for some years by his mother and the shrewd prime minister, Cardinal Mazarin. But Louis very early in life felt the importance of the position that he knew would one day be his, and began as a child to assume the dignity and grand manner of a king. One day, when he was playing with the son of a very high noble at court, he gave him his favorite crossbow to look at; and when it was not returned immediately he grew very impatient. "Sire," his governess whispered

in his ear, "kings give what they lend." Louis, thereupon, drew himself up with all the dignity of childhood, and, turning to his playmate, said, "Monsieur de Lomenie, keep the crossbow. I wish that it were something of importance, but such as it is, I give it to you with all my heart."

Although Louis was encouraged in the development of this polite and royal manner which characterizes him throughout his reign, he was given practically no education, for Anne, his mother, and Mazarin wished to keep him ignorant in order that they might more fully exercise their power over him. When the Cardinal entered Louis' room one night, and found the seven-year-old boy listening with shining eyes to the fairy tales his valet was reading to him, he was very much displeased. He feared that the eagerness of Louis' interest might stimulate him to desire further education. And so the future king of France, brought up in an atmosphere of wealth and elegance with little or no mental discipline, quite naturally grew to be pleasure-loving and extravagant.

On September 5, 1651, at the age of thirteen, Louis became king of France. Anne turned over all power to him and the nobles pledged allegiance to the new king in a beautiful and impressive ceremony. Three years later his coronation took place in the Cathedral at Rheims.

As Louis reached manhood, his mother, casting her eyes around for a possible bride for the king, looked

with favor upon four of the many candidates: the Princess Henrietta of Orange, the Princess of Portugal, Marguerite of Savoy, and Maria Theresa of Spain. Anne greatly desired to marry her son to Maria Theresa, but she knew well that the other powers of Europe would not permit the French king to marry a princess who was heir to the Spanish throne. The union of two such powerful nations under one crown would menace the security of all Europe.

The choice finally fell upon Marguerite of Savoy. Louis was so much impressed and pleased with Marguerite that arrangements were all but completed, when word came of the birth of a male heir to the Spanish throne. As this removed the objection to an alliance with Maria Theresa, Marguerite was informed, to her surprise, that the king had changed his mind and that she had been rejected. Less than a month later, the marriage treaty with Maria Theresa was completed. Maria Theresa received a dowry of five hundred thousand golden crowns, but renounced all claim to the Spanish throne.

There was a great display of welcome in Paris when Louis and Maria entered the city. The streets were strewn with herbs, so that the horses' hoofs could not be heard. Louis, heading the procession on a black charger, splendidly caparisoned in cloth of gold and silver, was followed by the queen in an antique car of emblazoned gold. The nobles came after the royal couple, according to their ranks.

Every one received the new queen joyfully, and the parliament sent messages to thank Louis for his choice. For weeks the whole court was given over to celebration of the great event. Louis, just twenty-one years old at the time, then entered upon a life of luxury and gayety, fully enjoying the profession of "being a king."

The death, soon afterward, of the influential Cardinal Mazarin gave much more power into Louis' hands. Summoning his ministers, he told them that hereafter there would be no prime ministers. When asked to whom they should refer matters of public business, Louis replied, "To me." From then on he began to exercise complete control in all matters of state. When he was informed on one occasion that the deputies had refused to pass a bill that he favored, he immediately went to the hall and remained until it had been passed. During the afternoon he learned that upon his departure the deputies had again rejected the measure. He at once ordered a meeting of the deputies for the next morning — the date of an important hunt Louis wanted to attend. At nine-thirty the next morning, he appeared at the meeting clad in his hunting dress, and followed by his retinue in the same attire. He heard mass, going through the ceremonies with whip in hand, and remained until the bill had again been passed. As he left, he declared that in the future all that was needed for the passing of edicts was the will of the king.



Hyacinthe Rigaud

LOUIS XIV

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In this belief in the supreme and unquestioned power of the king, Louis was adopting the idea of the "divine right of kings" that James I of England had announced fifty years earlier, but which the English people had refused to accept. According to that theory, the king was a representative of God to his people. His will to them must, therefore, be as the will of God. There could be no disobedience to his commands, nor any criticism of his acts.

There was a great deal about Louis XIV that made it possible for him to carry out this theory successfully. He was handsome and kingly in presence. He had a natural charm of manner, and had he been well educated might have made a good king, for he took his position seriously and gave much time to the business of ruling.

He was fortunate in the early years of his reign to be surrounded by wise and skillful ministers. Among these, one of the most famous was Colbert. It was he who accomplished great financial reforms in France. He put the country on a sound basis, checked the waste of public funds, and stimulated manufactures and commerce throughout France. Under Colbert's influence, too, the fame of France as a center of art and literature grew. Louis encouraged the great dramatists and poets of the day by inviting them to the court and rewarded their achievements by giving them pensions. He built an astronomical observatory at Paris and took steps to enlarge the Royal Library. But, while the king was a

liberal patron of the arts, he kept a close watch over anything that was written on religious or political matters, and he used his despotic power to stifle any expression of criticism of the state or church.

Absolute in power at home, and glorying in the high position France was assuming among the nations of Europe, Louis now entered upon an aggressive campaign to enlarge the dominions of France by seizing the lands of other countries.

When Philip of Spain died, Louis, for no other reason than personal glory, took the chance to occupy some territory in the Spanish Netherlands. Spain was in no condition to resist Louis' claims, but Holland, alarmed by the French king's high-handed way of seizing territory, persuaded Sweden and England to join with her to check his ambitions. Such a powerful alliance forced Louis to yield. He restored most of the conquered territory, retaining a few fortified towns on his northern frontier.

Four years later, however, angry at his defeat, and at Holland's part in it, Louis made war upon the Dutch. He bought the assistance of the English king, Charles II, and gained the support of Sweden and the emperor (the Austrian ruler of the Holy Roman Empire) by promises of territory. The invasion of Holland proceeded, and Louis won a great deal of territory from the Dutch in the southern portion. Emboldened by his success, he asked for more land and laid humiliating demands upon the people. William of Orange, in



FUGITIVE HUGUENOTS

response, ordered the dikes to be cut, and by flooding a part of the country drove the French out of Holland.

As Louis grew older, he was more and more determined to reign alone. He became jealous of his ministers and refused to have any one around him except those who would flatter him and pay him court. One of his most ill-advised actions was his treatment of the Huguenots, who, almost a million in number, formed a strong part of France's rich business and manufacturing class. These French Protestants had since the time of Louis' grandfather been granted religious toleration. Louis, on the advice of his officials, revoked the edict of Nantes which had protected them, and in the series of persecutions that followed thousands were killed or imprisoned, and more than three hundred thousand left France seeking protection in the Netherlands, in England, and in America.

As Louis grew more and more despotic, he took increasing pleasure in his reputation for wealth and magnificence. When he discovered on a visit to his Minister of the Treasury that Fouquet's palace was more elaborate than his own, he was very jealous, and as soon as an opportunity arose he satisfied his anger by having Fouquet imprisoned, and at once set about to build a greater palace for himself. Louis was in a position to take as much of the people's money as he could get and to spend it on what he pleased. With utter disregard of the cost, he had erected at Versailles the vast and wonderful palace which remains one of



Jean Marc Nattier

A PRINCE IN FRANCE

The people begged for bread, but the Court lived with no thought
of cost.

*Meissonnier*

PLAYERS AT BOULS AT VERSAILLES

the world's show places to-day. In the innumerable apartments of this great palace Louis established thousands of his courtiers, and lavished princely incomes upon those who served him. Proud of his power and position in Europe, and flattered on every hand as "The Grand Monarch," he gave little or no thought to the welfare of the peasantry, upon whom the ever-increasing taxes for the expenses of his splendid court fell most heavily.

When the king of Spain died in 1700, all Europe was astounded to learn from his will that he had made Philip, the young grandson of Louis XIV, heir to his vast dominions. England, Holland, and the emperor, alarmed at this tremendous extension of French influ-

ence, formed a new alliance declaring war against Louis in 1702. The conflict was carried on in America as well as in Europe, French and English colonists fighting against each other in what is known in American history as Queen Anne's War.

After ten years of unsuccessful fighting, Louis was ready to compromise, and signed terms of peace at Utrecht in which each of the nations at war received some part of the Spanish territory over which they had been struggling. Louis XIV's grandson retained his right to the throne of Spain. Austria gained the Spanish Netherlands and also the Spanish possessions in Italy. England gained most as a result of the war, for France gave to her Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay regions, and Spain ceded to her Gibraltar — that important position at the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea.

Two years later, at the age of seventy-seven years, Louis XIV died. His death was little regretted. All over France there was a feeling of relief. The people, suffering under crushing burdens, began to cherish hope for deliverance.

Thus ended one of the longest reigns in the annals of history. Louis XIV dazzled the world with his magnificence, and, under him, France for a time had a proud position among the nations. But his despotism and extravagant rule created in the people the discontent that three quarters of a century after his death broke out in the great French Revolution.

VOLTAIRE

1694-1778

As long as Louis XIV ruled, none dared to disobey the will of the monarch; none dared to protest nor to question his divine right to the crown. We who live in an age of democratic government, religious toleration, and free speech, may find it hard to believe that there was a time when a monarch had the power of life and death over his subjects; when he imprisoned without trial, and when he persecuted because of religious differences. But that is the other side of the picture of the "glorious" age of Louis XIV.

After the death of this great and powerful monarch, the growing dissatisfaction which his selfish rule had created began to find expression, and in 1778 public opinion had become strong enough to compel his grandson Louis XVI, against his wish, to assist the revolting colonies in North America in their struggle against the English king. Eleven years later the will of the people became so powerful that the French began a revolution for free and equal government.

Among the first voices raised in protest against the conditions in France resulting from Louis XIV's absolutism was that of Voltaire.

Voltaire, or to call him by his real name, François

Marie Arouet, was born in Paris on November 21, 1694, of a wealthy, middle-class family. After receiving a good college education, he was introduced by a prominent friend to the most aristocratic, witty, and frivolous French society. His wit, natural charm of manner, and skill in composing pleasing, light verses made him immediately popular. Soon he possessed more worldly knowledge than many an older man.

Once during this period, after a great lady had given him some money for correcting her verses, he was so overjoyed that he bought a carriage and a pair of horses from an auctioneer. He entertained his friends the whole day by driving around the streets of Paris. When late at night he brought his horses and carriage home, he could find no place, except his father's overcrowded stables, in which to put them. In attempting this he made so much noise that his father, having been awakened, turned him out of doors. On the next day Voltaire's fine horses and carriage were sold at half price.

Outraged by his young son's wild conduct, Arouet's father attempted to tame him. He was given the position of secretary to the French Ambassador in Holland. While there, he obtained much interesting knowledge of its republican government. This thoroughly respectable occupation, however, was abruptly ended by a pathetic love affair with a Protestant maiden.

Arouet had early decided on the career of a writer. Therefore, when he returned to France, enthusiastic



VOLTAIRE

over these new liberal ideas, he immediately began an unmerciful attack on the government of the Duke of Orleans, an able but unprincipled man, who was regent of France during the minority of Louis XV. The Duke of Orleans, in a futile attempt to nip in the bud the career of the promising young writer, twice ordered Arouet to leave Paris. Finally, angered be-

yond control by a Latin inscription, which ridiculed the government, he had Arouet rather comfortably lodged in the Bastile.

After a year in the Bastile, Arouet was set free. He then began a life of intense literary activity and soon became famous through the successful acting of one of his tragedies. Following this triumph he assumed the name "Voltaire." During his headlong dash for greatness, he tried his hand at almost every kind of writing. Quite early an epic poem, an eloquent plea for religious toleration, was published. Soon after its publication, Voltaire was again sent to the Bastile, simply because he quarreled with a disreputable nobleman who had him beaten almost to death. However, he was released in a few days on the promise that he would go to England.

There he spent two years of hard study. After thoroughly acquainting himself with the language, literature, institutions, and social life, as few have done in this period of time, he carried back to France a volume of twenty-four letters, published in England, as *Letters Concerning the English Nation*. In these he showed that national peace, happiness, and power were not dependent upon the absolute government under which the French lived. The effect on the public has never been surpassed. Thousands of his followers clamored for a reform of existing abuses. Needless to say, these letters were not popular with the autocracy.



Nicholas Maes

BOY WITH A HAWK

Children of nobility in Voltaire's time were reared in luxury and idleness.

Having acquired wealth through certain investments, he now lived in grand style in a château in Lorraine. While there he wrote plays which pleaded for religious toleration. His works show that he was greatly influenced by Shakespeare. The *History of Charles XII, King of Sweden*, a marvelous piece of narrative, was his first historical work. In his philosophical writings he expressed his ideas clearly and wonderfully. His popularity increased so rapidly that the court was compelled to recognize him.

In 1748 he was elected a member of the French Academy and was appointed a gentleman of the king's bedchamber. His favor at court, however, was of short duration.

At the urgent invitation of Frederick II of Prussia, he went in 1749 to live at Berlin. During his three years' stay, he published the *Age of Louis XIV*, an historical work, which he had been perfecting for twenty years. In it Louis' extravagant wars were attacked. Frederick might have endured this criticism of one of his idols, but Voltaire's merciless ridicule of a Frenchman, whom Frederick had made president of the Berlin Academy, was too much. The two men quarreled. In a great rage Voltaire left the palace. On his journey back to Paris he was arrested at Frankfort and made to undergo very humiliating treatment at Frederick's command.

After returning to France, Voltaire became a homeless wanderer for nearly two years. In his endeavor



Francis Mieris, the Elder

THE TRUMPETER

This is how a court soldier dressed, lived, drank, and played cards. His clothes were very fine but his room in the palace was small and very cold in the winter.

to find safety, he settled in Switzerland near Lake Geneva. But having a fond love for France, he was not contented with living in Switzerland, and by patient effort acquired in France some lands which were very near the boundary. On this land he made a little literary kingdom, which was soon acknowledged the intellectual center of Europe.

The people rightly saw in him a champion against tyrannical government and unequal privileges. In order to pay him honor, they wanted to have him at Paris, and showed their dawning power by compelling Louis XVI to permit him to visit the capital of France. Everywhere he was joyously greeted. The entertainment given him proved too exciting for a man over eighty-three years of age. On May 30, 1778, four months after he arrived in Paris, he died.

Voltaire did a great thing for France and, incidentally, for the whole world. He fought for freedom when it was not yet in existence. His clearness of thought and his precision of statement, due to his exact knowledge of the value of words, helped him in his efforts to transfer his ideas to the people. His courage inspired and strengthened men to assert themselves in the struggle for individual liberty.

FREDERICK THE GREAT

1712-1786

THE first king of Prussia, Frederick I, loved pomp and show, and in his beautiful palace at Berlin he surrounded himself with gay courtiers and an elaborate array of personal attendants. The pride of all the Hohenzollerns was great, and each one boasted that he had been able to leave Prussia larger and more powerful than he had received it. Three things they believed in: the absolute power of the sovereign, a huge army to enforce his will, and the continued conquest of territory. It was a very bitter thought to the king that at the end of the reign of his son, Crown Prince Frederick William, the crown would go to some other branch of the family; for Crown Prince Frederick William had no son to succeed him.

The day came, however, when all these gloomy thoughts of the future were changed to the greatest joy. It was just before noon on January 12, 1712, that a son was born to Crown Prince Frederick William and the Princess Sophia Dorothea. When the tiny heir was placed for the first time in his father's arms, the happy crown prince very nearly destroyed the hope of a nation by caressing him almost to suffocation with his huge, clumsy hands.

“Let the bells ring, and the flags wave in honor of our dear grandson,” commanded King Frederick I; and in his great joy he gave an elaborate welcome and a pompous christening to the baby, naming him Frederick. The king, however, did not live long after his grandson’s birth. Frederick William then became king, and “little Fritz,” as the baby was called, became Crown Prince Frederick.

King Frederick William I was a rough, uncouth man. He was typical of the old Hohenzollerns, many of whom were brutal and ruthless in warfare, treacherous in times of peace, and lacking the culture and refinement of their French neighbors. His sole object in life was to make Prussia one of the first powers of Europe. He dispensed entirely with the pomp and ceremony of his father’s court. He saved money on every possible transaction and put to work all the court idlers. His one thought was for his army. While he cut his household expenditures down to unreasonable figures, and was unbearably stingy with his wife, he spent money freely and extravagantly on his army and fortifications. He had a mania for tall soldiers, and would pay almost any price for a man over six feet tall.

“I shall make a great soldier of my son, and I shall build up for him the finest army in all Europe,” the king declared. He proceeded to carry out his plans from the time the little prince was first able to walk.

“Little Fritz,” however, had entirely different views. He was taught by his English mother to hate

*Adolph Menzel*

FREDERICK WILLIAM I VISITS THE VILLAGE SCHOOL

Prussian manners, speech, and ways of living. The queen despised her slovenly husband, and she planted the seeds of hatred in the heart of the little prince. Frederick had a good ear for music, and idled the greater part of his time away playing the flute. He wore his long, yellow hair in the French fashion and arrayed himself in beautiful dressing gowns. King Frederick William I was infuriated; he used the worst brutality to bring his son into submission. The crown prince preferred the French three-pronged fork to the Prussian two-pronged one; and although he had been forbidden by his father to use it, the stubborn boy persisted in having his own way. One day at dinner, the

king noticed that his son was using the French fork. He seized a plate and hurled it at the boy's head, only narrowly missing him. In a mad rage, he dragged his son to the window and strangled him to unconsciousness with the curtain cord.

The prince led a most miserable life. He was very sensitive, and day after day he became more morbid and silent. He tried again and again to make peace with the king, but he refused to give up his French books and music even though forced to the drill and hard life which the disappointed father preferred. Consequently, matters grew worse, and relations between father and son were more strained as time went on.

Between the hours and hours of hard drilling and military training, Prince Frederick now and then stole a few moments of pleasure. Late one evening, when he was seventeen years of age, he was in his room with his music master, playing his flute. He was arrayed in a gorgeous red and gold dressing gown, and he wore his hair in the extreme French fashion. Suddenly a friend of the prince burst into the room, calling, "The king! The king is coming!"

While his two friends, gathering up music and flute, jumped into a closet, Fritz frantically pulled off the dressing gown and dressed himself in his severe Prussian military uniform. When the king came in and looked suspiciously around, he at first found nothing. His eye then fell upon the red gown on the floor, and

in his terrible wrath he threw it into the fire. French books, music, everything went, and then the king seized the boy by the collar and beat him unmercifully with his heavy cane.

Fritz could stand it no longer and so he determined to escape. It was an unheard-of thing — a prince of the royal family running away! But the boy's mind was made up.

When Fritz was eighteen years old, his father took him on an extended tour through the country. This was his chance to escape, he decided. Two young men, friendly to the prince, had managed to get the money and disguises for the break for liberty. The boys had planned to go to England to stay with Fritz's uncle, George II, who was ruling there. King Frederick had suspected some plot of this kind and had placed special guards over the prince. Fritz, however, was desperate; and in spite of the many dangers, he made a wild dash for freedom.

As is to be expected, he was caught and brought before the king. The prince was thrown into prison, and the king was determined to have him killed. He contended that the prince was an officer in the army and that desertion from the army was punishable with death. It was only through the influence of some of the neighboring kings that Prince Frederick's life was spared.

For a long time he was kept a prisoner, and many months of cruel suspense passed before he was told

that he was not to be killed. Frederick's life in prison was no worse than his life with the king, but he had more time for thinking and brooding over the bitterness of his lot. When he was at last liberated, he had grown into a hard, bitter man. Nothing mattered to him now; he could bear any taunts and abuses without feeling one way or the other. It had taken years of beating and cruelty, but at last the stubborn prince realized that the king's will was law. He submitted unfeelingly to whatever was thrust upon him.

Prince Frederick realized that if he obeyed the king's wishes, he would be given more freedom to follow his own desires. He raised no objection, therefore, when King Frederick William I brought forth his choice for the princess royal of Prussia. She was Princess Elizabeth Christina, a very shy, awkward girl, seventeen years of age. Frederick married her to gain more freedom for himself, and he let her see plainly enough that she was not a welcome wife. He succeeded quite well in making life miserable for the simple young girl.

The reward which Frederick had hoped for was immediate. The king gave his son a palace in Berlin, where the boy found many leisure hours to study his French literature and to practice his music. Frederick's happiness grew daily, for he was painstaking in his obedience to the king.

His Majesty very generously purchased for Frederick a beautifully situated country castle where

Frederick lived quietly for the next four years. He studied histories of past wars and corresponded with the learned men of France, among whom was Voltaire who later became his close friend.

In the spring of 1740, as the old king found his health failing, he kept the crown prince constantly at his side. There was no touch now of the old bitterness which had once existed. In fact, as Frederick William I lay dying, he exclaimed:

“Am I not happy, to have such a son to leave behind?”

At his succession, King Frederick II, a young man of twenty-eight years, was not at all popular. The men of the court had in their minds the picture of a weak, long-legged boy, hair curled, dressed in a red gown, and playing a flute. Frederick II had before him the great task of removing this impression and proving to his people that he was no longer an effeminate prince, but that he was now a strong, learned man, a soldier, and every inch a king. It was a task, but Frederick proved himself equal to it!

Less than a year after his accession a messenger appeared at the palace gates with an important letter for the king. Frederick was at the time wrapped in many blankets suffering from a severe chill. The letter was, however, carried to him. The king read the message, jumped up from his bed, fully recovered, and went about a business which occupied the greater part of his life. What did the letter contain that had such an

effect upon his Majesty? It was an announcement that Charles VI of Austria was dead, and that Maria Theresa was now empress of the vast dominions.

Frederick proved to all his people that he was an able king and a great soldier; but, sad to relate, he proved also that he was a shameless man, a man entirely without moral principle. He took advantage of the fact that the ruler of Austria was a woman, and, without declaring war, promptly seized the rich province of Silesia.

Silesia, he said, belonged to him by some vague, ancient claim. He succeeded in holding it against the Austrian armies, although the war was hotly contested for years. It was on the victorious march homeward that the king was first given the imposing title of Frederick the Great.

When he was not fighting, Frederick devoted himself to the betterment of his people. With Voltaire, whom he had invited to the Court of Berlin, he had studied the ideas of the great reformers in government, and these he tried to put into practice in his own kingdom, not, however, with Voltaire's desire to give liberty to the people but only to increase his own power. He improved the land by digging canals, draining marshes, and building bridges. On the land thus reclaimed he settled hundreds and thousands of colonists, and in this way not only increased his territory but encouraged a great growth in population. He himself was a tremendous worker. He rose at four, took physical exer-

cise and medical treatment until eight, was at his desk until ten, and reviewed his troops until noon. The afternoon found him again at his desk until five, and in the evening he enjoyed music, supper, and society. He still retained his great love of music and of literature, and did much to further the development of culture in Prussia.

The high-tempered young empress of Austria was revengeful. The memory of Frederick's seizure of her province rankled in her mind. All of Europe implored her not to start another of those terrible struggles; but Maria Theresa begged for "one more battle, just one more chance." And so there came about what was almost a world war. Maria Theresa persuaded Russia, France, Sweden, and Saxony to side with her against Frederick, who thus fought a large part of Europe single-handed. But he was a great military genius — one of the greatest of all ages from Alexander the Great to Napoleon — and aided by British money he won a hard-fought victory against their combined forces. This gave Silesia finally into Frederick's hands and added to his domains a territory one third as large as Prussia itself. From that time Prussia took her place as one of the important powers of Europe.

To hold Silesia at the risk of everything remained one of his chief aims in life. One day the little nephew of the king was playing ball about the room in which Frederick was writing. Time and time again, the child, who was heir to the throne, allowed the ball to crash



Adolph Menzel

FREDERICK THE GREAT

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into the king's writing desk. Three times Frederick returned the ball to the child, but the fourth time he quietly put it in his pocket.

The boy asked very politely, "Will you give me my ball?" There was no answer. Again he asked, and still no answer. Frederick wrote quietly and ignored the child. The little prince strode boldly before the king, and, with his face blazing with anger, he demanded, "Sire, give me my ball immediately!"

The old man stopped writing and laughed heartily. He lifted the child to his knee. "Brave little lad," he said. "When you are king, they will never get Silesia away from you!"

Not satisfied with having gained Silesia, Frederick looked with longing eyes, as did Austria and Russia, upon the weak state of Poland which lay between them. Deaf to her protests, the sovereigns of these powerful states finally attacked her, each heartlessly seizing a coveted portion near his own kingdom. Frederick took as his share a small strip of land which lay between the eastern and western parts of Prussia, and which he had long wanted in order to make his boundaries continuous.

Late in life, Frederick erected (in a peaceful country district) a "royal cottage." This beautiful, quiet estate was his favorite home, and there he spent the years of peace, the years of rest, which followed his life of struggle. There he died on the seventeenth of August, 1786, a lonely old man, without wife or children around him.

At the time of Frederick's death, Prussia was one of the most powerful nations of Europe. How insignificant a part it had played before his accession! How much it had been improved by the efforts of this "benevolent despot"! But everything that he did for his people was done to strengthen his own absolute power. He wanted to make Prussia prosperous and strong in order to build up a great war machine for conquest. He improved the condition of his people, but kept them in almost slave-like submission to his will.

MARIE ANTOINETTE

Marie-Antoinette-Josephe-Jeanne de Lorraine
1755-1793

ON November 2, 1755, the day of the terrible earthquake at Lisbon, there was born to Queen Maria Theresa at the Austrian court a little girl destined both for greatness and for disaster. An affectionate, lovable child, she seemed from the beginning to have an almost irresistible charm for all who knew her. There was a warm bond of affection between her and her father, the Emperor Francis. One day when she was seven years old, the emperor, who had left the palace to start on a journey, turned back, on an impulse, and commanded that the little Archduchess Maria be brought to him. Taking her in his arms, he said, "I wished to embrace this child once more!" It was the last time she saw her father, for he died suddenly a few days later.

For her mother Marie seemed to have had respect rather than affection, and, indeed, Maria Theresa, who had great political ambitions, interested herself much more in affairs of state than in her children. Marie's education was sadly neglected, and though she had a naturally quick mind, she was not taught concentration or self-control. She studied French and Italian, but learned little of the history of her own country or of

*Le Brun*

MARIE ANTOINETTE AND HER CHILDREN

(Purchased from Taber-Prang Art Co.)

any other — not a very good education for a future queen.

When her mother asked her one day over what people she would like to rule, she answered without hesitation, “The French.” This reply pleased Maria Theresa greatly, for plans had long been afoot to strengthen the friendship of France and Austria — countries which for many years had been bitter enemies.

In 1770, therefore, a marriage was arranged between Marie Antoinette and the French dauphin, the great-grandson of Louis XIV. At the age of fifteen, Marie, beautiful, vivacious, and high-spirited, was received at Versailles to become the bride of Louis, a shy, quiet youth, awkward and ill at ease, but an honest and kindly prince.

Marie captured all hearts almost instantly. The old king, Louis XV, was delighted with her youth and gayety, and when Marie, soon after the marriage ceremonies at Versailles, made a visit to Paris she at once established herself as the object of the love and admiration of the French people.

Four years later, on May 10, 1774, Louis XV, a victim of the dreaded smallpox, lay at the point of death. As the dauphin and Marie were together awaiting the news from his chamber, suddenly they heard outside the door a noise almost like thunder. It was made by a great crowd of courtiers rushing from the room of the dead sovereign to greet the new king, Louis XVI. Marie and her husband threw themselves on their knees, and, with tears in their eyes, cried out, "O God, guide us, protect us; we are too young to govern!" The young queen was nineteen; Louis barely twenty. They might well pray for guidance, for into their inexperienced hands was given, to rule, a country trembling on the edge of disaster. The fearful extravagances of Louis XIV and of his dissolute successor Louis XV had plunged France into poverty,

misery, and discontent. Their legacy to the young Louis XVI, now crowned king of France, was the terrible experience of the French Revolution.

During the early years of their reign Marie found Louis a good husband but a poor king. While affairs of state were being mismanaged by dishonest ministers, Louis XVI spent many hours each day in his workshop where he constructed locks and other pieces of intricate mechanism. His hardened and blackened hands were often a source of reproach from his beautiful young wife. That he could so employ his time when France was on the brink of ruin indicates how ill-fitted he was to govern.

After the birth of her first child, a little daughter, in 1777, Marie proved herself a devoted mother; but, fêted and adored as she was, she still spent much of her time in a frivolous pursuit of pleasure. When she first came to the French court, she had dressed very plainly, for she had been used to the extremely simple ways of her Austrian home. Her head somewhat turned by her wealth and power, she now became very extravagant in her dress. As soon as a new fashion was introduced by Marie, the young women of the court instantly wished to imitate the queen, and many spent vast sums, even going into debt in order to keep in style. The headdresses, with their superstructures of gauze and flowers and feathers, grew to such heights that women could not find carriages high enough to accommodate them.



LOUIS XVI, KING OF FRANCE

A. F. Collet

From this time on, the queen was the object of many attacks, for the wretched poor were paying the taxes that supported the folly and extravagances of the court. They began to turn against her also because of the stories that were told of her undignified pranks. Marie, restless under the restraints of an elaborate court etiquette, often threw prudence to the winds, and, dressing in peasant costume, sought for youthful relaxation in rash escapades. These added fuel to the growing feeling of resentment against her.

When a son was born in October, 1781, the people were so delighted at the birth of an heir to the throne that for a time Marie Antoinette was again fêted and worshiped.

During these happy days, the great subject of conversation was the American war for independence. Lafayette was aiding in person, and Beaumarchais sent supplies. Benjamin Franklin, with straight, unpowdered hair, round hat, and brown suit, was an odd figure in the midst of the embroidered ladies and gentlemen of Versailles. The queen was always opposed to giving assistance to the Americans. She could not understand how one sovereign could be willing to assist in the efforts to cut down the sovereign power of another. She had the kindest of hearts and was very sympathetic to unfortunate individuals; but she firmly believed in the benefits of monarchy. She sympathized with the sufferings of her people, but she did not understand their ideal of democracy.

Famine and riots in France grew daily. The queen, however, was enjoying life at the beautiful villa, the Trianon, given her by Louis. Starving peasants were told that her little theater at the Trianon was ornamented with diamonds, and that there were columns studded with sapphires and rubies. Uncomplimentary poems were written about the queen, and a cartoon was circulated representing the king at table with the queen — he with a glass in his hand, the queen raising a morsel to her lips. The people were crowding about the table with mouths wide open. Below the drawing were the words: “The king drinks, the queen eats — the people cry out! ”

While Louis hunted and Marie played, events of the utmost importance were taking place in France. The notables had met and ordered a retrenchment in the expenses of the crown, but had accomplished little else. The people demanded the calling of the States General, an assembly which provided for the representation of the common people, as well as the clergy and nobility, but which no king of France had called for one hundred seventy-five years. When this States General now finally met in 1789, under the direction of Mirabeau, it consecrated itself to the task of meeting “until the constitution of the kingdom is established and founded on a solid basis.” This signalled the beginning of the French Revolution. From 1789 to 1792 the revolution was a sane reconstruction of government, including the abolishment of many abuses.

It established a limited instead of an absolute monarchy. Feudalism and serfdom were abolished; special privileges long enjoyed by the nobility were denied; the parish priests who did the real religious work were to be properly paid; taxation was equalized and a constitution giving the people power in the government was adopted.

In the meantime, Marie had become an object of hatred among the people. On numerous occasions, the king and queen were insulted by angry mobs. At one time, a ragged crowd swept from Paris to Versailles, burst into the royal apartments, and all but succeeded in assassinating the queen. "The Bastille," a hated prison, into which hundreds, perhaps thousands, had been cast to die without knowing the cause of their imprisonment, was stormed and thrown open. Finally the royal family was forced from Versailles to Paris and made virtual prisoners at the Tuileries.

In 1790 the king accepted the constitution, and the revolution was declared over.

All might have gone well now had it not been for the folly of Louis and Marie in arousing the suspicions of the people as to their loyalty to France. Foreign monarchs, fearing the loss of their own autocratic power if constitutional government succeeded in France, were conspiring with French nobles who had fled from Paris to restore Louis XVI to his former absolutism. This treachery infuriated the French, who were convinced that Marie was plotting with Austria against France,

and a new assembly at once began proceedings against these emigrant nobles. Louis XVI foolishly listened to the secret messengers of these emigrants, and planned to escape from Paris, hoping that he might secure help from foreign monarchs to subdue what he was told was a revolt in France against his authority as king.

Accordingly, at midnight, the royal family, disguised and provided with false passports, stole, one by one, from their castle through an unguarded gate. They met at a prearranged place where two coaches awaited them. Twelve miles from Paris they exchanged their conveyances for one large vehicle which had been built, at the king's direction, to contain the entire party. All went well until they reached a quiet country inn, one hundred forty miles from Paris and only a few miles from the frontier, beyond which lay safety. Here the king imprudently thrust his head out of the coach door. Through the resemblance of his face to that on the coins then in use, he was immediately recognized by a young man, named Drouet, who, mounting his horse, galloped to Varennes, some dozen miles in advance, to inform the authorities. When the coach arrived at Varennes, it was instantly surrounded by soldiers and the occupants forced to disclose themselves. Their identity was at once revealed! The attempted escape a failure, there was nothing for the royal party to do but return home. As they reëntered Paris, they were received by the populace in "ominous silence."

Louis, really anxious at heart for the good of his people but unequal to the situation, gave himself up to discouragement. Adversity, however, seemed to transfigure Marie. She, who had been frivolous and childish, displayed, in the days that followed, dignity, courage, and contempt of danger.

Soon after the return of the royal family to Paris, the Jacobins, a powerful political club in France, gained control of the government. From the first it had wished the establishment of a republic. Under such leaders as Marat, Danton, and Robespierre, the Jacobins instituted throughout France a "Reign of Terror," during which all persons known to sympathize with royalty were executed. Thousands met death at the guillotine.

On August 10, 1792, an uncontrolled mob attacked the Tuileries, and the king and queen were forced to the assembly for protection. In September of 1792 France was proclaimed a republic, and the royal family were confined as prisoners in the Temple. Here they remained together until the trial of the king. Each day the king would instruct his son in his lessons, particularly French literature, the queen devoting herself to the education of her daughter. In the afternoon the king would read aloud to his family.

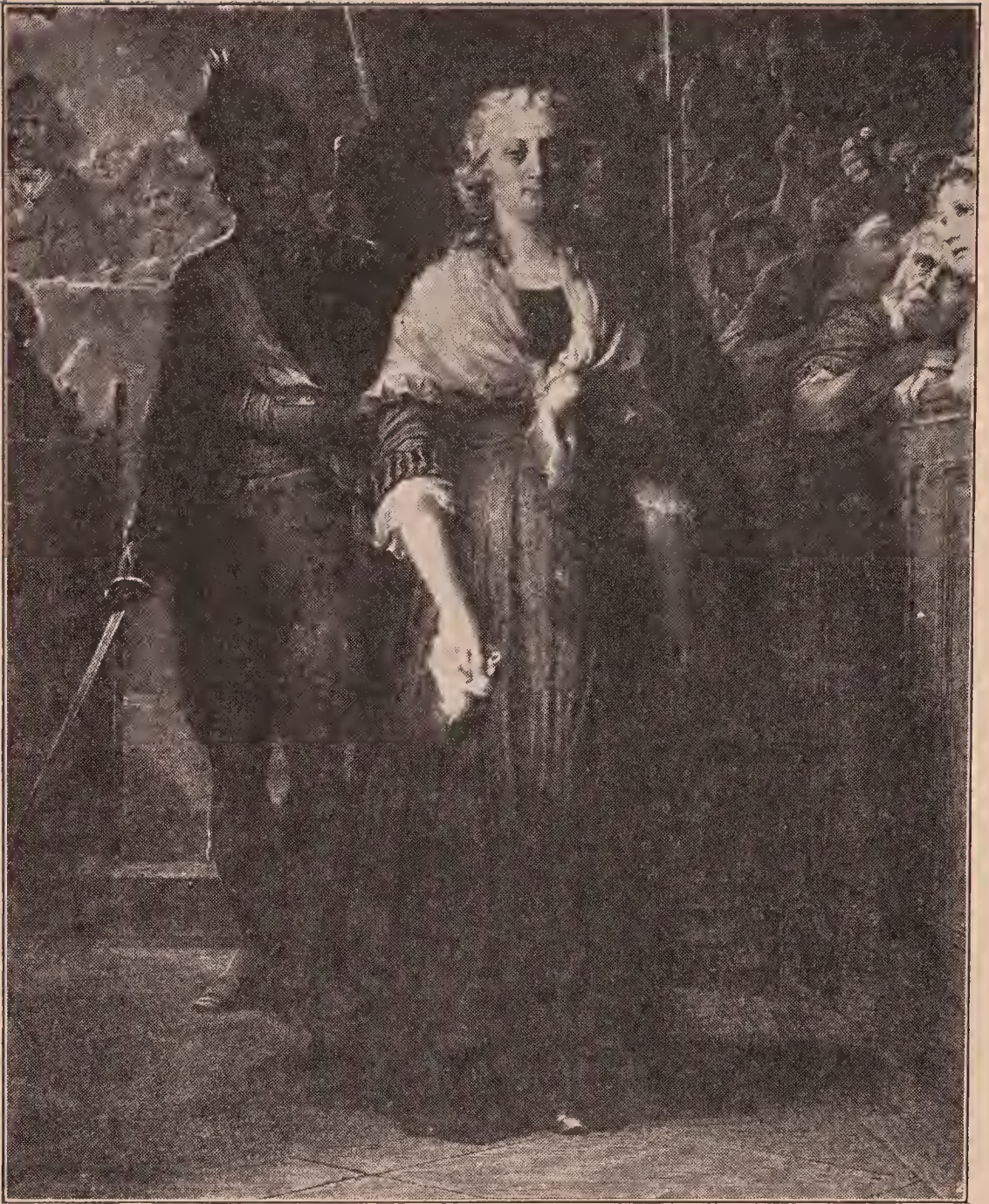
The pressing question in the assembly that governed France was: What shall be done with King Louis? If he and his family were permitted to live, the republic which had now been established would be in constant

danger. So thought the radicals who controlled the assembly.

On January 21, 1793, Louis XVI was led to the guillotine. He was always a good man, but not a great man unless it might be said that he was great in the last moments of his life, his final words being: "I die innocent of all the crimes laid to my charge. I pardon those who have occasioned my death, and I pray to God that the blood you are now about to shed may not be visited upon France."

After the death of Louis, weary months elapsed for Marie. On the third of July, the dauphin was taken away from her and given over to a shoemaker named Simon, who, it is said, adopted every method of cruelty calculated to ruin him physically and mentally. On the second of August, she was separated from her sister-in-law and her daughter and removed to an ordinary prison.¹ In this bleak place, Marie had no other dress than an old black gown. She was entirely destitute of shoes, and her stockings were full of holes which she was forced to mend daily. Thus was the "fairest and favorite princess of one of the proudest and most ancient houses of Europe" brought low — a victim to

¹ The daughter was later exchanged for some French officers held prisoners in Austria. She afterward married her cousin, an Austrian noble. What became of her unhappy brother is not known. He probably died while still a young boy from the abuse of the shoemaker. Some people believe that he was secretly taken by his Royalist friends and brought to this country. The exact facts about the life of the dauphin after he was turned over to the shoemaker, Simon, will probably remain a riddle in history.



THE TRIAL OF MARIE ANTOINETTE

Paul Delaroche

the great revolution for human freedom, a movement with which she could not sympathize because she did not understand it.

In this period of her disgrace her serene dignity, her sweet self-possession, and her courage moved even Robespierre to an effort to save her. But Marie, in her fears for the life of the king and her children, had undoubtedly conspired with Austrian absolutists, and her doom was pronounced by the assembly.

On the morning of October 16 she was placed in a tumbril, with her hands tied behind her, and conducted through the jeering crowds to the guillotine. Sorrow had whitened her once beautiful hair, but her pale, proud face was still lovely. "She ascended the scaffold with a firm and dignified step as if she had been about to take her place on a throne by the side of her husband."

The populace that had so often cried out with love and enthusiasm, "Long live the Queen," now applauded her execution.

SIR ISAAC NEWTON

1642-1727

ISAAC NEWTON was born in Lincolnshire, England, December 25, 1642. The house in which he was born is still standing, and in his room is a marble tablet giving the date and place of his birth and also bearing the following inscription:

“Nature and Nature’s laws lay hid in night;
God said, ‘Let Newton be,’ and all was light.”

John Newton, the father of the scientist, died a short time before Isaac was born, leaving his widow two small farms. When Isaac was four years old, his mother, who was known throughout the parish as being a very fine woman, married the clergyman of that district, and one of the two farms left by his father being deeded to Isaac, he was sent to live with an aunt with whom he stayed until he was fifteen years old. He then returned to live with his mother who had been again left a widow, and who needed his help in the farming.

When Isaac Newton was thirteen years old and very small and weak for his age, he held the last place in the lowest class in the school. One morning just before the opening of school the boy who held first place in

the same class, and who was much larger than Isaac, kicked him and then retreated into the school building. When school was over that day, Isaac challenged the other boy to fight, and, the boy accepting, they went to the churchyard where affairs of this sort generally took place. A ring was formed and the fight began, urged on by the schoolmaster's son; and though Isaac was much the smaller and weaker of the two boys, owing to his spirit and resolution he gave his enemy a thorough thrashing, rubbing his nose against the wall to crown the victory.

Isaac went home that night exulting over his victory, but the next morning in the classroom he again saw his enemy at the head of the class while he himself remained at the foot. He began to wonder, and finally decided that his victory was not complete until he had conquered his enemy in the classroom as well. After a long and hard struggle, he finally won and reached the head of the class. From then on he was a student and never relapsed into idleness for the rest of his long life.

From childhood Isaac showed a great talent in all things relating to mechanics. At one time when a wind mill was being constructed near his home, he made a small model of the mill himself. Later he became dissatisfied with it because it would not run without the wind; so he made an arrangement by which the mill could be kept in motion by a mouse. He also invented a water clock which was made to run by a drop of water

falling at intervals upon a wheel. This clock kept such perfect time that the family always went to it when they wished to be sure of the exact time. Isaac also made a sun dial which is still visible on the side of the house, and by which time could be told quite accurately.

Besides working out these inventions Isaac spent many hours making toys and other things with which to amuse his friends. For the young ladies he knew he never tired of making small models of furniture and houses, and for the boys he made unusually strong kites, which, being flown at night, with a light of some sort attached to the tail, would throw a great scare into the simple people of the parish.

When Isaac went back again to live with his mother, he soon proved that he would never make a successful farmer. If he were sent to market to help sell farm products, he would take a book and disappear in some garret to study until time to return home. Or if he were sent to the fields to mind the flocks, he would be found hours later stretched out in the shade of some hedge, or sitting on the bough of a tree, figuring out some mathematical problem while the sheep trampled the crops in a near-by field.

When he was sixteen, Isaac made his first scientific experiment. On the day that Oliver Cromwell died there was a severe storm and a great wind raging over England. To find the force of the wind, Isaac first jumped against the wind and measured the length of his jump, then jumped with the wind measuring that

jump also. By taking these two measurements and comparing them with the distance he could jump on a calm day, he learned the force of the wind.

Fortunately Newton's mother realized that her son was more fitted for the career of a scholar than that of a farmer; so when he was twenty she entered him as a student in Trinity College, Cambridge. Because she was unable to meet all the expenses, Newton was entered as a "sizar"; that is, he was obliged to perform certain menial tasks in order to earn part of his expenses. But his duties were light and he was left ample time for his studies.

Newton entered college a student at heart, but he did not in the least mind sharing in the various amusements of his fellows. His work at first was a form of amusement to him, requiring little effort on his part; and during his entire school career he followed his own judgment in his selection of studies, entirely neglecting some branches of the course.

As he spent more time in school, however, he began to take his work too seriously. He became absent-minded in the extreme, and sometimes at meal time he would sit down at the table and gaze into space until the others were through eating, when he would leave the table without realizing that he had not touched a bite. Also, he would often sit up for an entire night over one problem in mathematics, and look as refreshed in the morning as though he had had a good night's rest.



SIR ISAAC NEWTON

Kneller

One of the fine things in the history of the University of Cambridge is that its officials recognized that young Newton was a great student. The university gave him the means of following a life of study. When Newton graduated, one of his old teachers, with tears in his eyes, gave a talk to the assembled students in which he held Newton up to them as a worthy object of their love and admiration.

The university granted Newton financial aid by giving him first, a scholarship, then a minor fellowship,

and finally a full fellowship. When he was twenty-seven years old, he was permanently established in the university as a professor of mathematics. His duties were not heavy as he was given only a few classes to teach, so that he was left plenty of time for study.

Newton was only twenty-three when he made his greatest discovery. In the autumn of 1665 he was spending several weeks at home, college having been dismissed on account of the plague. He was seated in his mother's orchard one day watching the ripe fruit drop to the ground, when he fell into one of his meditations upon the nature of the force that caused the apples to fall with visibly increasing speed directly toward the earth.

Scientists had for some time been debating as to the force that caused the planets to remain in their proper places in the universe, instead of moving around freely and bumping into each other now and then. Newton, debating with himself on this subject, and watching the apples fall from the tree to the earth, and thinking also of the force which caused a ball shot from a cannon to curve gradually toward the ground, struck upon the idea that there was some force in the earth pulling objects toward itself. This led to his discovery of the famous law of gravitation, which means that all bodies, whether large or small, have a tendency to attract one another. He then set himself to calculate with how much force the earth attracted the moon, and how much force was required to keep the moon in its orbit. He



MARY STUART AND WILLIAM OF ORANGE

(Painted by Van Dyke when they were married. Their accession to the English throne in 1688 during the time of Newton meant much more freedom for the English people.)

did not solve all these questions at the time; but many years later he continued his study along these lines, and besides explaining the law of gravitation, he worked out the laws of motion and many other scientific principles which have been invaluable to scientists the world over.

Newton was interested throughout his life in scientific activities of various kinds. He made important discoveries about light, he invented a new form of higher mathematics, and at one time he devoted a great deal of patient work in an effort to discover a method by which the baser metals could be changed into gold.

He was never, however, so buried in science as to forget his duties as a citizen. When James II was making plans that might be detrimental to England, Newton worked so hard against them that he was elected to Parliament where he served as a useful member for eighteen months.

For many years he was governor of the Royal Mint, at an income of over five thousand pounds a year. At this time he held a distinguished position in London society, and was admired and liked everywhere for his sincerity and frankness. As a man of wealth in these latter years of his life, he was noted for his generosity in loans and gifts. Notwithstanding this, he left an estate of some thirty-two thousand pounds to be divided among his relatives.

After a long life devoted to science and public service, Newton died March 20, 1727, at the age of eighty-

five. He was buried in Westminster Abbey with all the ceremony due to the greatest scientist of his time. Voltaire, who was in England at the time, attended his funeral, and the honors paid to Newton made a lasting impression upon him. It is said that, "in extreme old age, his eyes would kindle and his countenance light up when he spoke of his once having lived in a land where a professor of mathematics could be buried in a temple where the ashes of kings reposed, and the highest subjects in the kingdom felt it an honor to assist in bearing hither his body."

PETER THE GREAT

1672-1725

THE birth of Peter, at Moscow, on the thirtieth of May, 1672, was an especially happy event, for the reason that the two eldest sons of the Czar Alexis of Russia were in feeble health. This third son was a strong, healthy baby, and was able to walk when he was six months old. From his earliest years his father surrounded him with luxury. He had his own apartment with troops of attendants and a special bodyguard of male and female servants, dwarfed in stature, because these were thought more suitable for a child. An eye-witness tells us that when Peter was a little more than three years old, he drove his own carriage drawn by four dwarf ponies. In his nursery he had every kind of toy that a boy could desire, and he spent hours playing soldier with bows and arrows, pikes, swords, and miniature cannon.

When Peter's father, the Czar Alexis, died in 1676, Feodor, the eldest son, became czar of Russia. This weak young sovereign lived but a few years after his accession. The two sons of the Czar Alexis, between whom the choice now lay, were Ivan, fifteen years old, lame, deaf, and almost blind, and Peter, who, even at the early age of ten, gave some promise of future greatness.

After the nobles had paid their respects to the dead sovereign, they retired to another room to choose a new czar. It was decided that Ivan and Peter should be joint czars, with the oldest daughter of Alexis, Sophia, as regent.

The two boys were crowned together on June 26, 1682. Under the dome of the Cathedral of the Assumption was erected a platform, covered with crimson cloth, to which two paths of scarlet velvet led from the sanctuary. On the center of the platform was set the gilded throne of the Czar Alexis. This was divided by a bar down the middle so that it could be occupied by the two boys, and in the back of the chair a hole was cut in order that the youthful sovereigns could be prompted by a watchful attendant. Ivan was crowned with the ancient regalia, and imitations of these had been made for Peter.

Thus began the reign of Peter the Great.

As Sophia saw her young brother growing daily more clever and ambitious, her heart was filled with jealous hatred. It is said that she did all in her power to keep him in ignorance and make him as corrupt as possible. He was surrounded by a set of the lowest and most wicked young men in the czardom, who led him into drinking, idleness, and many other bad habits. Although he was brought up without regular instruction or good influence, nothing could check his great desire for knowledge. In the streets, the blacksmith shop, and carpenter shop he was always eagerly learning.

At the age of seventeen Peter began to show signs of throwing off the authority of his sister Sophia. When he married in direct defiance of her wishes, she was so angry that she plotted his death, and ordered six hundred of the court guards to seize and imprison him. Peter, however, was able to gather about him so large and loyal a following that Sophia and her party were completely routed. Sophia was confined, by Peter's orders, in a convent at Moscow where she remained shut up until the time of her death fifteen years afterward. Peter at once took upon himself the real sovereignty of the empire, for his brother Ivan who was weak and sickly assumed no part whatever in the government.

Now that Peter was the sole czar of Russia, he set out with passionate zeal to improve his country. As a result of an invasion of Tartars from the Orient during an earlier age, the Russians were at this time still Asiatic in customs and manners of living. The men wore turbans and flowing robes; the women were kept in harems; the soldiers had armor like that of the Chinese. Although Russia lies in Europe as well as in Asia, it was then completely shut off from the other European nations by the barren plains of Poland in the west and the total lack of seaports in the north and south. All of this Peter determined to change, for it was the ambition of his life to make Russia a great European power.

As soon as he took the government into his hands,

he plunged into the task of remodeling his crude army. He sent for expert European officers to drill and equip his soldiers in the best manner, and with characteristic enthusiasm he himself enlisted as a private, gradually working up from this position to the rank of general.

In order to investigate the latest European models of men-of-war and to teach his people western customs, Peter determined to make a tour of Germany, Holland, and England. Never was a visitor so eager to learn. He visited mills and factories, and studied architecture and history. For a week, he put on the wide breeches of a Dutch laborer and worked in a shipyard near Amsterdam. Everywhere he engaged experts to go home with him to improve the conditions in Russia.

The moment Peter's eye caught any new object, there came the excited question, "Wat is dat?" When he was told, he would exclaim, "I will see dat." In his curiosity he sometimes forgot to be careful, and one day he became entangled and drawn into a dangerous machine.

When Peter visited the hospitals he insisted on being allowed to draw teeth, to let blood, and to dissect bodies. Convinced that he could perform surgical operations as well as the doctor, he tried out his skill upon a poor woman suffering from the dropsy. It is not surprising that she died; and the czar, in remorse at the unhappy result of the experiment, tried to console the bereaved husband by attending the funeral of his victim.

*Müller*

PETER THE GREAT

The czar's Asiatic ancestry made him appear very crude among the western Europeans. While living in London, he occupied a beautiful place called "Saye's Court." When Peter and his troops left this elegant estate, the splendid mansion was almost a wreck, and the well-kept grounds with their beautiful green hedges were trampled and ruined.

When Peter heard that the Russian nobles and churchmen, angry at his desertion of the long-estab-

lished customs of his forefathers, were revolting against his new western ideas, he returned home at once. Upon his arrival, he punished the rebels cruelly, he himself brutally cutting off the heads of many with his own sword.

From the first, he had hated a powerful military organization in Russia which had interfered with his absolutism. Seizing this opportunity, he now disbanded them and organized a regular standing army. This was the beginning of a series of startling reforms. For the long beards and Oriental robes of his people he substituted shaved faces and short coats. At his command, many women gave up the seclusion of their harem life and accustomed themselves to mingle freely and naturally with men. He built schools, factories, and roads. He invited foreigners to come to Russia and sent many young Russians abroad to study.

In order to make these changes permanent, Peter knew that he must open a way from Russia to the west. For many years his ancestors had looked with an envious eye upon the coast of the Black Sea, and Peter himself had seized Port Azof, but such a port was worth little while the Turks still held the Dardanelles. Peter, therefore, leaving to his successors the cherished dream of getting Constantinople, turned to the north. Taking advantage of the fact that Charles XII of Sweden was being attacked by a ring of enemies, he began seizing his land along the eastern coast of the Baltic Sea for his foothold in the west.

Dissatisfied with the old, inland, Oriental capital, Moscow, so far away from the European capitals and so full of the traditions of the east, Peter determined to create a new capital that would be "a window," as he said, through which Russia could look toward the west. He chose, for this purpose, a bit of one of his newly acquired provinces along the Baltic. Although this site was very marshy, Peter persevered and, at great cost in effort, money, and human lives, established Russia's first real seaport. To this new capital, which he called St. Petersburg, he transported thousands of Russian peasants; foreigners from all western countries were invited to reside there. Magnificent buildings were erected. When Charles XII, the youthful prodigy and military genius of Sweden, tried to regain the Baltic territory which Peter had seized, Peter, with his large and well-drilled army, met him and completely defeated him. At last Russia was becoming a European power.

In 1725 the czar, whose constitution had been weakened by his strenuous life and disregard for his health, was attacked by sickness which brought an end to the earthly career of Peter the Great.

He was truly great, for in spite of his own crude and half-savage ways, he realized the value of civilization and worked unceasingly for the improvement of his backward country.

WILLIAM PITT

1708-1778

WILLIAM PITT, one of England's greatest statesmen, and a true friend of the American colonies in their struggle for freedom, was born November 15, 1708, in London.

William's boyhood days were spent at his parents' home in the quiet little village of Stratford, the birth-place of Shakespeare. There was nothing in his youth to indicate the fighting force he developed in later years. Frail and weak in body, he seldom joined in the games of the other children, but buried himself in his books and lived in a world of his own imagination.

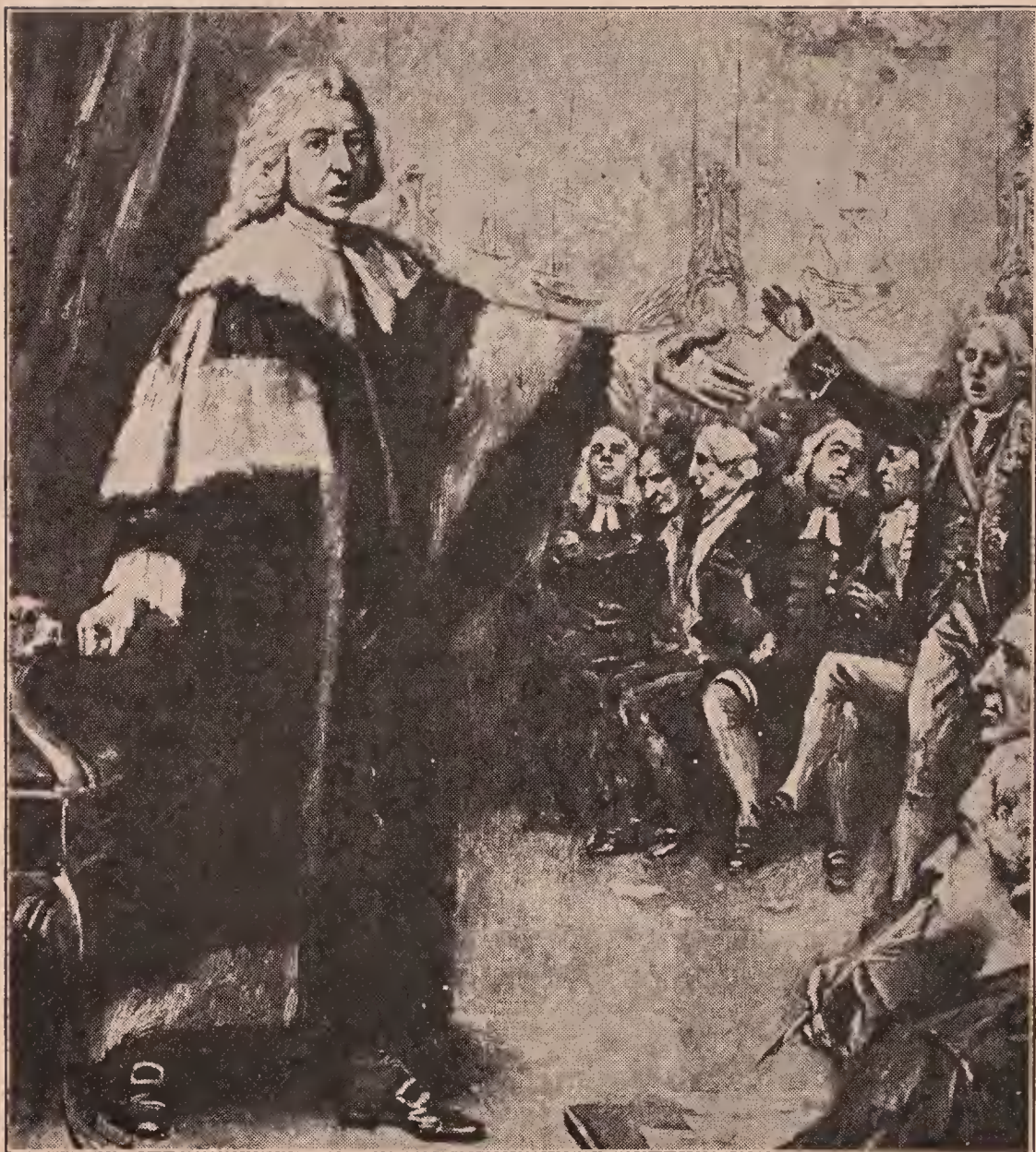
For six years he was a student at Eton College. Here again William was cut off from participation in the sports of the athletic boys. But he applied himself even more diligently to his books, and in his solitary walks along the Thames River he dreamed and planned a career that he was one day to realize.

William spent his vacations from Eton with his grandfather, a wealthy and prominent man who was governor of Madras. During those visits, the stern old man learned to know and to love this quiet boy, and he shared in all his sorrows and joys, his disappointments and achievements. It was his grandfather who

made it possible for William to go on with his education at Trinity College, Oxford, for at his death he left William enough money to continue his course.

From his school days Pitt had been cruelly tormented with gout. This attacked him with increased violence at Oxford and compelled him to quit the university without taking a degree. After a trip to France and Italy, which did not seem to benefit his health much, Pitt, who had very little money, realized the necessity of choosing a profession. An opportunity of entering Parliament soon occurred, and in the election of 1734 Pitt was chosen representative for the borough of Old Sarum, which had been the property of his family.

When Pitt first entered Parliament, Sir Robert Walpole, who had been twenty years at the head of affairs as prime minister, was fast losing his friends. Pitt attached himself to the Whigs — the Patriots, as they were called — in opposition. From that time until the death of Walpole a great struggle raged between the two. Walpole, who was a skillful statesman and showed great ability, especially in financial matters, had low standards of political honesty. He believed that every man had his price, and under him bribery was the regular method of securing votes. It is said he even tried to bribe Pitt, but was unsuccessful. It was against such selfishness and corruption in politics that Pitt rebelled. In his eloquent speeches he appealed to the patriotism and sense of honor of his countrymen, and by his enthusiasm and unselfish zeal for his country he



L. G. Ferris

WILLIAM PITT, THE EARL OF CHATHAM, IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS

led England to become the foremost power of the world.

At Walpole's death Pitt took a leading position in British affairs. He was the only man that the people could trust and was called by them "The Great Commoner."

The king, George II, stubbornly refused to grant Pitt the offices which he by right deserved. In spite of this opposition, however, he rose from one position to another until in 1757 he became prime minister of England. It was then that he plunged into the most splendid period of his career. He waged parliamentary conflicts, never swaying in his convictions. He either won his point or resigned his office, always to be recalled, because "the play could not go on without its chief actor."

When Pitt took the helm, England was in the midst of the great struggle with the French for supremacy in India and America. These two rival powers had turned almost simultaneously to India, that untouched mine of wealth, and were striving with each other for its possession. At first the power of both was exercised largely through commercial organizations — the British East India Company and the French East India Company. Gradually the jealousy that arose over their attempts to secure complete control of trade brought the nations themselves into conflict. Robert Clive, at first a clerk in the East India Company, entered the army raised by England and, fired with zeal and ambi-





tion, this young daredevil repeatedly conquered the French and their native allies until English influence in India was practically supreme. The hardships of military life and of the climate broke down Clive's health, and he was forced to return to England.

In 1756, however, when Clive, restored in health, had returned to India as military commander at Madras, fresh trouble broke out in the north of India. A cruel and dissipated nabob of Bengal revolted against English authority, seized Calcutta, and threw one hundred and forty-six Englishmen into the cell of the English fort. This cell, the "Black Hole of Calcutta," as it is called, was twenty feet square and had only a few windows near the low ceiling. The weather was intensely hot. Within this hideous hole one hundred forty-six men, suffocating for lack of air, struggled and fought to get near the windows. In the morning only twenty-three had survived the terrible experience. Clive, burning with indignation, commanded an expedition, put down the revolt, captured Calcutta, and forced the nabob to enter a new alliance with England.

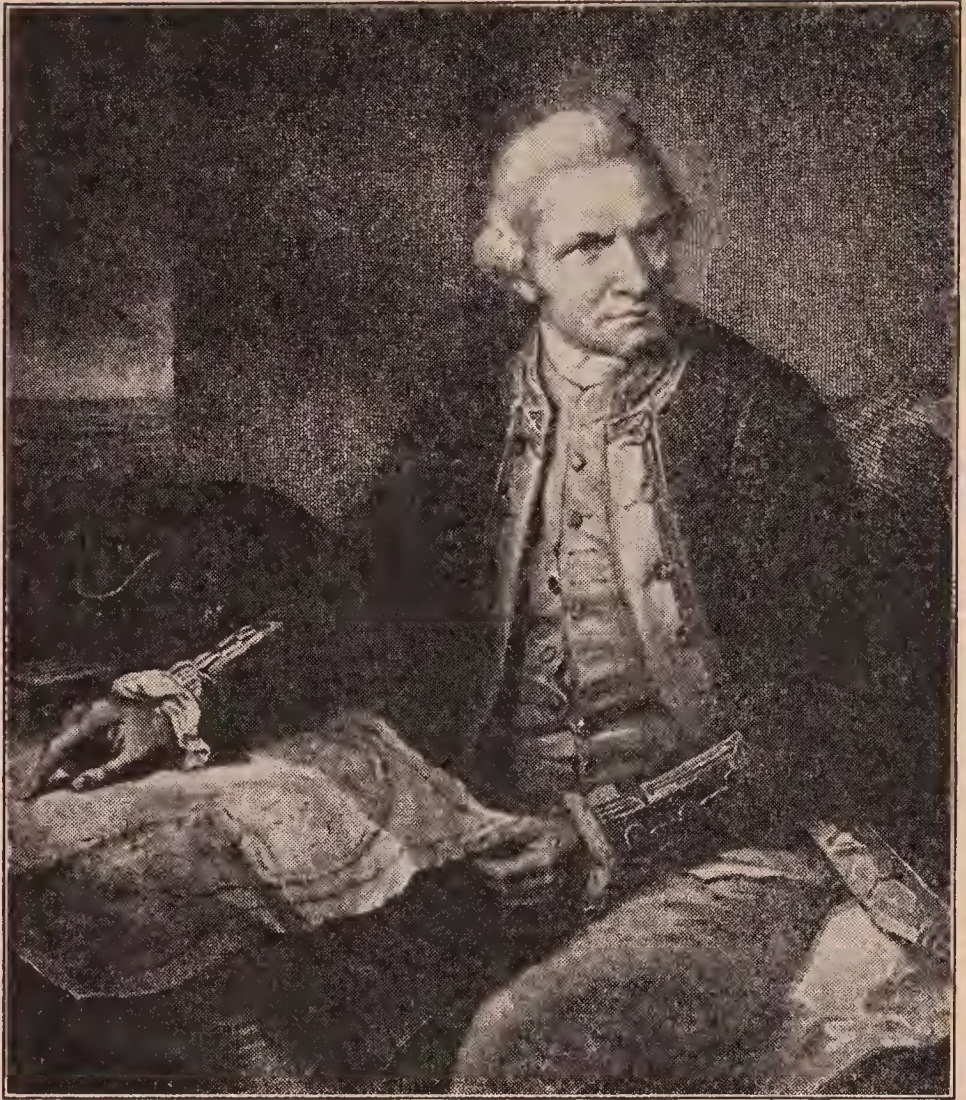
New trouble met Clive when the French and Indian War in America brought France and England again into conflict in India. A great victory by Clive at Plassey, against heavy odds, won for him the position of governor general of British possessions in Bengal. He was equally victorious against the French in the south of India, and by 1760 he had placed the future of India in the hands of the English. Although Wil-

William Pitt did not personally enter into this conquest of India, it is largely due to his wise choice of men and his ability to inspire them with zeal for the advancement of British power that England, during this period, reached such a height of military achievement and extension of empire.

While Clive was breaking the power of the French in India, Pitt was throwing into the management of the French and Indian War in America all the energy and enthusiasm of his nature. At first things had gone badly for the English, for the French had succeeded in winning the good will and assistance of the Indians. Pitt was wise enough to listen to the advice of the American colonists and follow the method of warfare they suggested. He encouraged the colonists to raise an army of twenty thousand men and persuaded England to furnish them with arms and supplies. To these colonial troops he added twenty thousand English regulars, and he placed them under enterprising and able commanders. Pitt again showed his good judgment of men by sending Wolfe into the critical situation at Quebec. In 1760, when Clive had completed the conquest of India, Montreal was captured, and at the end of the war, in 1763, France had lost all her possessions in North America, except several small islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

In this period of great expansion England extended the rule of empire in still another direction.

In 1768 the Royal Society of England sent out an

*Dance*

CAPTAIN JAMES COOK

expedition to make scientific studies. The navigator in charge was Captain James Cook. He sailed along the stretches of the shore of Australia, taking possession of it in the name of the English sovereign. He called the continent New South Wales because of its resemblance to the shore line of Wales of the British Isles. It is interesting to note that England took possession of Australia just about six years before her thirteen American colonies declared their independence. The

first colonists, mainly convicts, were sent to Australia the very year of the meeting of our constitutional convention. Since then England has given the people of Australia a very large degree of independence in their own government. At the present time the English government is financing the movement of thousands of settlers from Great Britain to Australia as a means of relieving the mother country's distressing burden of overpopulation.

It was Pitt's statesmanship and inspiring force that led England on from conquest to conquest. And it was England's failure to heed Pitt's wise counsel that lost for her, in this same period, her valuable American colonies. Pitt was from the beginning a firm friend of the Americans. He stood for the liberties among Englishmen that the colonists were asking for themselves. His spirit in the matter is seen in his words from a speech in behalf of America: "I rejoice that America has resisted."

When George III came to the throne, he was jealous of the power of prime ministers in England and determined as far as possible to rule without them. Pitt resigned a year later, and a Tory ministry came into power. When he returned to Parliament some years afterward it was as Earl of Chatham with a seat in the House of Lords. In the meantime England had put into effect her new determination to tax America and had passed the Stamp Act in 1765. One of the finest examples which we possess of Pitt's oratory is his speech

delivered in 1766 for the repeal of the American Stamp Act. A bill for the repeal of this act was soon afterward carried by a considerable majority of the House. In commemoration of this a colossal statue of Mr. Pitt was erected at Charleston, South Carolina.

As American affairs came to a crisis, Lord Chatham's health compelled him to be absent from Parliament much of the time. But America was not lacking in friends. A younger man, Edmund Burke, threw himself into the American question, steadfastly holding to the policy of Pitt against the taxation of America. On the nineteenth of April, 1774, Edmund Burke made his celebrated speech on American taxation. It was late in the evening when he began to speak. His talk was so sincere, so animated, and so forceful that "the House was hushed save for that one magnificent voice." When after a few hours he ceased, a mighty applause burst forth from the crowd. They could appreciate his brilliance, but they were king's men and they were not influenced by his arguments.

On the very eve of revolution itself, Burke made one last effort to save the colonies for England in his famous speech of March, 1775, on "Conciliation with America." Burke tried to show Parliament not that they had no right to tax America, but that the English nation was working against its own interests in doing so. The American colonies before 1760 had been prosperous, happy, and a source of great wealth and power to England. He argued for a return to their former

system of allowing the colonists the right to tax themselves. But not all the sympathetic eloquence of Pitt, nor the perfect logic of Burke, could then save the situation into which George III and England's Tory ministry had plunged England.

After a year of colonial revolution, Lord Chatham attended a session of Parliament to make a motion for peace with America. He came to the House wrapped in flannels and supported on crutches. In this speech occurred the memorable sentence, "You talk of annihilating their Congress and of dispersing their army; *I might as well talk of driving them before me with this crutch.*"

In the spring of 1778 Lord Chatham made his last speech. This old man, leaning heavily upon his crutch, made a pathetic picture. Before the end of his speech his sentences became blurred; he swayed to and fro and then fell in a dead faint to the floor. He was carried to his home at Hayes, where he was tenderly watched over by his wife and children. In the days that followed, his life ebbed slowly, and on the eleventh of May this great English statesman reluctantly laid down his earthly burden. He had lived for England's glory, and through his wise statesmanship and unselfish service he had increased that glory a hundredfold.

TADEUSZ KOSCIUSZKO

1746-1817

IN Lafayette Square in Washington, D.C., there stands a monument to one of the greatest patriots the world has ever known — Tadeusz Kosciuszko. Inscribed on this monument are the words, “Freedom shrieked when Kosciuszko fell.” Perhaps when you have heard the story of this great man’s life, you may realize the meaning of these words.

At the time of Kosciuszko’s birth, on February 12, 1746, Poland’s progress was at a standstill. This country, unprotected because of a lack of natural boundaries, was exhausted by the oppressions of other countries. Surrounded by three powerful nations of Europe, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, who were working for her destruction, Poland was in a pitiful plight.

Kosciuszko spent his boyhood in a remote spot in Lithuania. His home was a pretty but plain little cottage, where he was reared simply with the good example always before his eyes of the devoted married life of his parents. Kosciuszko mingled freely with the peasants and so developed a democratic spirit.

Until he was twelve years of age, he was taught at home by his mother, a woman of strong character. Then, at the death of his father, Kosciuszko was sent

to a Jesuit College to continue his education. At this school he acquired a sound classical training and developed a strong love for his country.

A prince of the leading family in Poland, who often visited Lithuania, was attracted by the talented young boy. It was through this man's influence that Kosciuszko was entered in a school under royal patronage. This was not a military academy, but the discipline was largely along military lines.

Kosciuszko was an eager, enthusiastic boy, and possessed unusual fire and ability. Whatever strength he had, however, was tempered by a peculiar sweetness, which won him the love and respect of his young comrades. This characteristic prevailed in later life and drew men to his banners like magic.

When Kosciuszko left this school, he was one of its head scholars and officers, and was recommended as a recipient of a state traveling scholarship. Supported by this money, the young man left Poland to pursue his studies abroad. He went to France, where he entered a military school; at the same time he took private lessons in architecture and drawing, for which he possessed a strong liking.

In 1772, while Kosciuszko was still abroad, the first partition of Poland took place. Helplessly he looked on while Poland's greedy neighbors partook heartlessly of his beloved country. Kosciuszko's soul was embittered, but he could do nothing.

Two years later he returned to Poland, a well-edu-

cated, strong young man, burning with the fire of patriotism and determined to serve his country. He found himself bound to inaction, however, for the king was a tool of Catherine II and, through her, of Russia. Since there was nothing he could do, he retired to the country, where he lived at the homes of his relatives.

While staying with one of his kinsmen, Josef Sosnowski, Kosciuszko tutored the young members of the family to pay for his welcome. One of these was a beautiful young girl, Ludwika. As Kosciuszko instructed her in her studies, he grew to love her. The girl returned his affection, and it seemed that the affair was destined to have a happy ending. However, over the gaming tables, Sosnowski made an agreement with his opponent that the latter's son should marry Ludwika. The girl was secretly removed from the scene, and Sosnowski refused to let Kosciuszko know of her whereabouts.

Deeply wounded by this bitter affront, Kosciuszko left Poland and went to Paris. There he learned of the struggle for independence of the Thirteen Colonies. The word "independence" stirred Kosciuszko's strong democratic tendencies, and it is quite natural that we next find him fighting for America's cause.

By this time Kosciuszko had become an engineer of some note, and he was placed in command of a number of men engaged in fortifying West Point. This was the longest and most important of his undertakings in America. Little remains of the fortifications, but on

*H. B. Hall*

KOSCIUSZKO

the site there has been erected a monument bearing the inscription, "To the hero of two worlds."

From West Point Kosciuszko was transferred to the south, where he served under Nathaniel Greene. Whenever he was placed in command of men, Kosciuszko treated them not as inferiors but as comrades. In this way he won the love and respect of all with whom he fought. Kosciuszko proved himself invaluable to the American forces because of his merits as an engineer. He often saved very difficult situations by

his wisdom in the choice of sites for camps and fortifications.

At the close of the war the rank of brigadier general was conferred upon Kosciuszko, and he was given a grant of land by Congress. Here he might have spent the rest of his life quietly on his own property, but his mind wandered again and again to the oppressed little country across the ocean. Finally he became so restless that he could no longer stand the inactivity; therefore, after winding up his affairs in America, he started for Europe in 1784. He reached Poland in the same year, bringing with him many new democratic ideas.

The one tranquil period in Kosciuszko's life was soon after his return to Poland. For four years he lived the quiet life of a country farmer. At the age of forty-five, this rugged soldier was again disappointed in love. From that time forth his one passion was that of devotion to his country.

When the Polish constitution, declaring freedom and justice to all, was passed, it seemed that new life lay before the nation. Catherine II of Russia, however, realizing that this would interfere with her plans, declared war on Poland.

Throughout the spring of 1792 Kosciuszko was preparing his army for war with Russia. With their forces equal to only one single column of the Russian army, the Poles put up a gallant struggle, inflicting heavy losses upon a superior enemy, but gradually giving way before the overwhelming numbers of their foes. The

frightened king of Poland ordered the Poles to lay down their arms. Kosciuszko, enraged, distressed, and grieved, fell ill; and, immediately upon his recovery, he left Poland. The country was again divided, Russia and Prussia seizing each a large share.

While Kosciuszko was traveling in other countries, hidden confederations were being formed all over Poland preparing to rise in the defense of national freedom. In conferences held in the dead of night, the choice fell upon Kosciuszko as the leader who should avenge the national dishonor.

Two Polish delegates carried the proposal to him at Leipzig. This was the great moment of Kosciuszko's life, and with fiery enthusiasm he responded to the call. As anxious and eager as he must have been, Kosciuszko formed his plans calmly and with perfect composure. He issued urgent pleas to the people, and his remarkable personality and that "peculiar sweetness" of his nature drew the people to him as a magnet. Enthusiastically the peasants, landowners, rich, and poor gathered round their great leader, taking as their watchword, "Death or Victory."

This watchword proved a stern reality. In a terrible battle the little Polish army was completely surrounded by Russians. In the bayonet charge which followed, the Poles were mowed down like corn before scythes. The Russians remained masters of that battlefield only by treading over the dead bodies of the Poles.

Kosciuszko himself was seriously wounded in a hand-

to-hand encounter, and was taken prisoner by three Russian ensigns. He was carried to St. Petersburg and placed in solitary confinement in the Peter-Paul fortress. Kosciuszko's wounds were treated by the unskillful Russian surgeons, and when they did not heal, one of the doctors reported the matter to Catherine II.

"His mind is sick with grief for his country and his body is shattered by the wounds," said the surgeon. "He can live but a short time in prison."

By this time Catherine had recognized Kosciuszko's high qualities, and she had him removed to one of her palaces, a place more suited to his condition. Two years later Catherine II died and her son Paul, who had always admired Kosciuszko, gave him his freedom. In order to gain liberty for his fellow prisoners, Kosciuszko was forced to swear allegiance to Paul I of Russia.

He now decided to visit America; and upon his arrival in New York he was received as an honored guest.

"I love America," said Kosciuszko, "and I look upon her as my second country."

He stayed only a short time, however, for within a few months he received urgent letters from Europe necessitating his return. The young Poles, former soldiers of the Republic, had enrolled in the armies of Napoleon in the hope of regaining their freedom. They little dreamed that he was using them only for his own ends. Kosciuszko, however, saw through Napoleon's plans.

Wishing to aid Poland as much as possible, he withdrew his oath to Paul I of Russia. This greatly enraged the latter, who held a conference to decide "what should be done to impede the criminal intentions of the chief instigator of the revolution in Poland." Russia then decreed Kosciuszko's instant arrest should he be seen within her boundaries. Prussia and Austria followed suit, thus barring his return to his own country. Kosciuszko loved his country more than anything in life; and yet he never again saw his own land.

One small ray of hope came to him during his retirement in France, when Alexander of Austria showed intentions of aiding Poland. Then, as a bolt of thunder from a clear sky, Russia, Prussia, and Austria agreed to a renewed division of Poland between them. This was the final blow to Kosciuszko, and the tired old man, broken in health, retired permanently from public life. He took up his abode among some of his friends in Switzerland where he stayed until his death on the fifteenth of October, 1817.

The body of Kosciuszko rests in Poland's former capital, Cracow, where lie Poland's kings and her most honored dead. To this day the name of Tadeusz Kosciuszko lives in the hearts of the Polish people, as the object of their passionate love and the symbol of their dearest national hopes — now realized.

ARKWRIGHT and WATT

1732-1792 1736-1819

ALL through the Middle Ages people of western Europe made few inventions. For centuries they continued to do things exactly as their fathers had done them. Methods of travel and manufacture were very much the same as they had been in Greek and Roman times. This was due partly to the belief that such men as Aristotle had known about everything that could be known. People thought it a waste of time to seek new ideas or to attempt new ways of doing things. Besides, the best minds of the period were to be found in the cloisters where all questions were settled, not by observation and investigation, but by the authority of the Church. Any one whose ideas differed from the accepted religious beliefs of the time was condemned as a heretic. When Roger Bacon, a great pioneer scientist, about 1250, attempted to experiment in physics and chemistry, he was accused of magic, and when, in his writings, he suggested that some day people would fly in the air like birds, he was thought to be in league with the devil; his books were destroyed, and he was thrown into prison. There was very little encouragement, therefore, for any one searching for new ideas. It is a fact that a person eighty years of age, living in

this country to-day, has seen more changes in life than took place during the preceding two thousand years.

Shortly before 1500, however, a new spirit of investigation and discovery arose among the people. The middle of the fifteenth century saw the wonderful invention of the printing press. In 1492 the zeal for exploring new lands led to the great discovery of America. At about the same time, Copernicus, a Polish astronomer, claimed that the earth was not the center of the universe, but instead revolved about the sun. This was considered contrary to the Scriptures, and he escaped persecution by concealing his discoveries. These were not revealed until after his death. Sixty years later Galileo, who invented the telescope, was imprisoned for defending the theory of Copernicus. But in spite of all obstacles, scientists persisted in their studies. How Newton, still later, discovered the law of gravitation has already been told.

It was a long time, however, before these scientific discoveries affected the daily life of the people. During the Middle Ages life was slow moving, and to us it would seem very monotonous. The hurry and scurry of modern times were unknown. Agriculture was the chief occupation. There were few large cities and only the crudest means of transportation. Manufacturing was all done slowly by hand and, therefore, expensively. It was carried on in peoples' homes not only in cities but also in the many small towns scattered throughout the country. Even the peasant farmer used

his spare time, particularly during the winter months, in making shoes, clothing, and household articles needed by his family. Thousands of homes were busy workshops. The father of the household was the master workman, often employing several boys as apprentices. Each household manufactured one particular line of goods, such as shoes, watches, clocks, clothing, or chairs. The apprentices received little or no pay; they worked in order to learn a trade, hoping ultimately to become master workmen themselves. The articles thus manufactured were usually offered for sale at the homes where they were made.

At the end of the eighteenth century, however, a striking difference in life occurred. Then suddenly, through the application of important scientific principles to industry, there began the transformation of that quiet, simple rural life, into the noisy, complex industrial world of to-day.

One of the first industries to be affected was that of cloth making. For thousands of years threads of yarn had been spun from sheep's wool by hand and then woven into cloth on hand looms. Cloth is made on a machine, the loom, by weaving together vertical threads with other horizontal threads. In the fourteenth century the first spinning wheel was invented which took the place of spinning by hand.

In the latter part of the eighteenth century there appeared five inventors — Kay (1733), Arkwright (1769), Hargreaves (1770), Crompton (1779), and

Cartwright (1785) — who made great improvements in both spinning and weaving. These inventions enabled one man to spin or weave more cloth each day than dozens of men could have done a few years before.

The most interesting in this group is Richard Arkwright, for he was not only a great inventor but also an able business man. He is called “the father of the factory system.” Little is known of Arkwright prior to his invention, though it is said that for a time he earned his living as a barber. His spinning machine manufactured a strong, heavy thread known as “warp,” which was at that time much needed for weaving. The warp is the thread that extends lengthwise in the loom. This “warp” spinning machine was patented by Arkwright, so that he controlled the sale of “warp” in England for many years. With the revenue he received he built his first factory at Cromford, England, in which he established dozens of machines and employed hundreds of workmen. In 1786 he was knighted by King George III.

Within a few years he had a number of new factories all busily running. So great was the speed of his new spinning machines that the colored laborers, in the southern United States where most of the raw material came from, slowly cleaning a few pounds of cotton a day by hand, could not keep up with their hungry demand. By 1790 the supply of raw material was so low that Arkwright had to run his factories part time. Just at this crisis, the young American, Eli

*Wright*

SIR RICHARD ARKWRIGHT

Whitney, invented a machine, the cotton gin, with which the laborers could clean hundreds of pounds of cotton a day. Soon our country was exporting one thousand times as much cotton as formerly, and Arkwright's mills were once more humming. His cloth was sold in many countries, and before his death he became a very wealthy man.

As the factories developed in various parts of England, another big problem arose. Most of the early factories were built on rivers so that the machines could

be run by using the power of the water. However, there are not many rapidly flowing rivers in England, and most of these were remote from trade centers. This problem was solved by James Watt. Watt did not invent the first steam engine. The fact that steam could produce motion had long been known, and crude engines had been used to pump water from mines for years. It was Watt, however, who made the steam engine practicable. He became a manufacturer of engines which were sold to factory owners to move the machines in their factories.

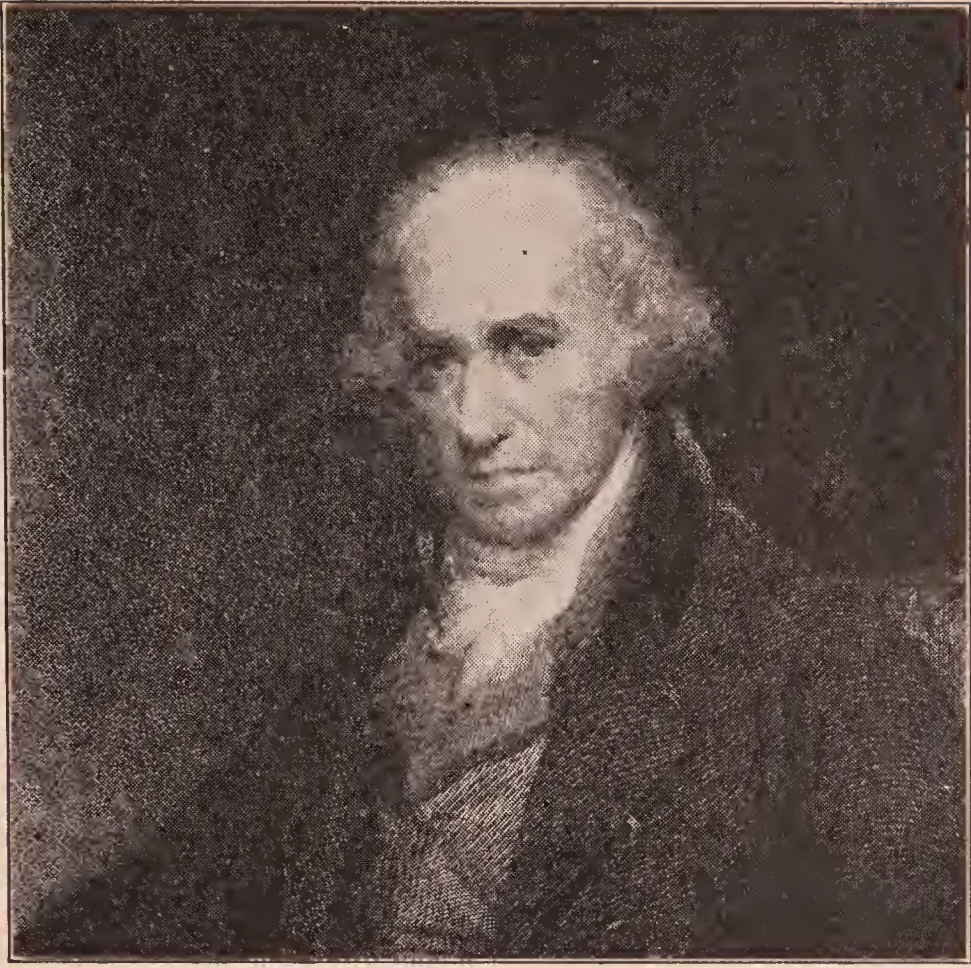
James Watt was born January 19, 1736, in Greenock, Scotland. During his early life his father, who had been a small merchant, failed in business, so that the Watt family for some years was in very straitened circumstances. As a small boy James Watt was unusually bright, and his parents were very proud of the progress he made. His father taught him writing and arithmetic, while his mother taught him to read.

On one occasion when James was fourteen years old, his mother took him and his brother to Glasgow and left them there for several weeks to visit friends about their own age. Within a week Mrs. Watt received a letter from the mother of James's friends in which she said: "You must take your son James home. I cannot stand the state of excitement he keeps me in. I am worn out for want of sleep. Every evening before ten o'clock, our usual hour for retiring, he contrives to engage me in conversation, then begins some

striking tale and, whether humorous or pathetic, the interest is so overpowering that all the family listen to him with breathless attention. Hour after hour strikes unheeded; in vain his brother John scolds, and pulls him by the arm to try to make him stop." He used this vivid imagination that made him so interesting a story teller about everything that he saw.

Some time later while he was spending an evening with his aunt, she suddenly cried out, "James Watt, I never saw such an idle boy; take a book or employ yourself usefully!" For half an hour he had not said a word but had stood before the stove, taking off the lid of the teakettle and putting it on again, holding first a cup and then a silver spoon over the steam, watching how it rose from the spout, and catching and collecting the drops of hot water it fell into. "Aren't you ashamed," she went on, "of spending your time in this way?" Little did she understand that the boy before the teakettle was studying the power of heated water, and that this study would lead directly to the invention of an engine which ushered in the "Age of Steam" in the nineteenth century.

When James was about nineteen years old he was apprenticed to a London master workman, named John Morgan, who made and repaired mathematical and astronomical instruments. At one time a small model of a steam-engine pump was given him to repair. While working on this engine which had been used for pumping water from a mine, he was led to make

*Sir W. Beechey*

JAMES WATT

a thorough study of the power of steam, something that had interested him ever since the time he had been scolded by his aunt.

As he examined this pump and later watched its operations, he felt that it was not very successful because it used or wasted too much steam and in return gave too little power. He devoted years of his life to the problem of perfecting what others had already begun until he finally produced a machine that did not waste steam and that exerted great power. The principles of the steam engine, worked out patiently by James Watt during long years of experimentation, are

the same that are in use to-day in millions of engines operated in all parts of the world.

His perfected steam engine patented, Watt's problem now was to establish a factory in which to manufacture them, as the demand for engines to run the machines in the factories in England was pressing. Watt, by nature a thinker and a dreamer, cared nothing for business. He therefore entered a partnership with a man of affairs named Matthew Boulton. They established the "Soho Steam Engine Works," near Birmingham, and, through the business ability of Boulton, both men prospered and became very rich.

Watt, however, gained no pleasure whatever from his great factory. Indeed, he was very much bored and discouraged because it took so much of his time. In writing about it he told of his "detestation of making bargains or settling accounts, or forcing workmen to do their duty — so that I greatly doubt whether the silent mansions of the grave be not the happiest abode."

There is no question that this feeling was partly due to the violent opposition he met from the thousands of skilled workmen, manufacturing in their own homes, who saw that their means of livelihood were being taken away from them, because one of his engines could furnish power for as much work as a hundred of them could do by hand. For this reason, the master workmen, no longer able to compete successfully with the factory owner, were forced to sell their homes and seek employment in some great factory. The apprentices

of necessity joined the exodus to the manufacturing centers. This great change in industry which occurred first in England is known as the Industrial Revolution. Within a few years a similar revolution took place on the continent and in our own country.

As James Watt grew older he gave up his shares in the engine building industry to his sons because he wished to devote his abilities to things in which he was more interested. His highly imaginative mind produced many useful inventions, the most noteworthy being the application of steam to heating houses. Sir Walter Scott describes Watt, in his old age as he knew him, "an alert, kind, benevolent old man, his talents and fancy overflowing on every subject, with his attention alive to every one's question, his information at every one's command."

GEORGE STEPHENSON

1781-1848

GEORGE STEPHENSON, growing into young manhood under the changing conditions of the great industrial revolution, believed the greatest problem of his time was the problem of transportation. How could the raw material needed by the factories be more easily and quickly transported to the factories? How could the manufactured goods made in the factories be more readily carried to the markets? The canals, the horse cart, and the pack horse were insufficient to meet the demand, and they were now considered too slow as a means of transportation.

Robert Fulton had already solved the problem of water transportation. It was George Stephenson who solved the great question of transportation by land.

George Stephenson was born in the year 1781 in Wylam, a village of less than a dozen small homes, in the extreme northern part of England, about eight miles from the town of Newcastle.

His family was extremely poor and for a time lived in a single room of one of the humble dwellings in Wylam. His father, Robert Stephenson, was employed as a fireman of a colliery engine at Wylam. This was a stationary engine at the opening of a coal

mine and was used largely for the purpose of pumping the water out of the mine. Although the Stephensons were poor, they had a happy home life. George in later years often spoke of the family picnics enjoyed on pleasant Sundays.

On one occasion when George and his sister Eleanor drove to Newcastle, his sister wished to buy a new hat, but the hat that suited her fancy cost fifteen pence more than the amount of money the children possessed. In this difficulty George showed the resourcefulness that helped him at many times in later life. He found a comfortable place for Eleanor to sit in the market place at Newcastle, requested her to wait until his return, and then started off with determination in his eye. Eleanor obediently waited. When he came back in the late evening he was jingling in his pocket the fifteen pence needed to buy the coveted hat. He had earned the money during the afternoon, he said, by "holding the gentlemen's horses." The purchase made, the happy children drove back in the twilight over the eight miles of lonely road from Newcastle to Wylam.

As there was no school in Wylam, the Stephenson boys went to work at an early age. James, an older brother, found employment as a "picker" at the colliery, while George watched the cows owned by the villagers. He drove the cows to pasture in the morning and watched them throughout the day so that they would not stray away. In the evening he brought them back to the village, receiving two pence for his day's

work. When George became older he joined his brother at the mines. As a "picker" his work was to take stone, such as slate, from the coal that had been mined. For this he was paid six pence a day.

At the age of fourteen, he was made assistant to his father who was now the engineer of the colliery engine at Wylam. These were happy days for George, as he delighted in studying the mechanism of the engine and in making model engines of wood and clay. At this time much was being written about machinery, and especially about engines, but as he had never attended school he could not even read these articles. So keen was his desire to do so that he enrolled at once in the night school at Newcastle, where he attended classes three evenings each week. The "master" of the school said that the progress made by young Stephenson was remarkable, and he was soon reading everything concerning machinery that he could lay his hands upon.

When Stephenson was twenty-six years old he read of Robert Fulton's success in making an engine which could drive a boat ahead, even against the current of a river. From the moment he read of that achievement the purpose of his life came to be to devise a means whereby trains of cars could be drawn over rails by an engine.

Rail transportation had begun in England about 1800. The first rails were made of wood or stone; later ones were made of steel. The cars were drawn by horses and were at first used only for carrying freight.

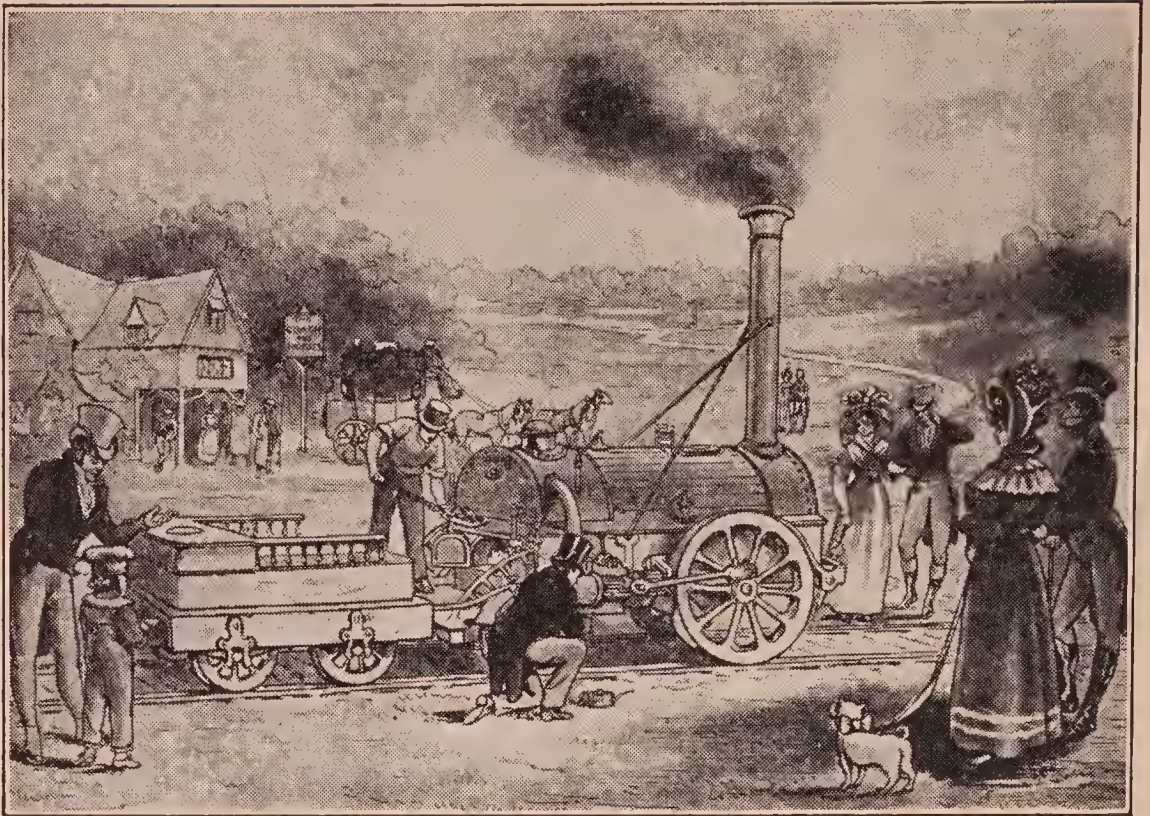
Three years later, however, a horse-car line for both passengers and freight was opened in London.

Not long after this Stephenson was made an engine wright at a coal pit at Killingworth. He immediately began the construction of a "traveling engine," to be worked by steam, for a tramroad between the colliery and the port nine miles distant. Lord Ravensworth, one of the owners of the Killingworth colliery, who had become deeply interested in Stephenson's attempt, supplied the money necessary for building the engine.

On July 25, 1814, the great experiment was made, and "Puffing Billy," as the engine was known, slowly but triumphantly chugged along its nine miles of track drawing thirty tons of coal behind it. It made an average speed of thirteen miles an hour, but its speed going up hill was only four miles an hour. "Puffing Billy's" run on nine miles of track from Killingworth to the sea marks the beginning of our great railway systems of to-day.

In 1825 Stephenson was made an engineer of the Stockton and Darlington Railway, the first to carry passengers and goods by steam locomotion. Later he directed the construction of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, opened in 1830. It was on this road that Stephenson's engine "The Rocket" won a race in which four other engines were entered.

George Stephenson in his early years had seen quiet agricultural England transformed into a busy manufacturing country. He lived to see his invention of



THE ROCKET — BUILT BY GEORGE STEPHENSON IN 1830.

the locomotive engine do more than anything else to increase the population of new industrial centers to hundreds of thousands and to multiply the number of factories in these cities a thousandfold. The railroad precipitated the rush and complexity of modern business.

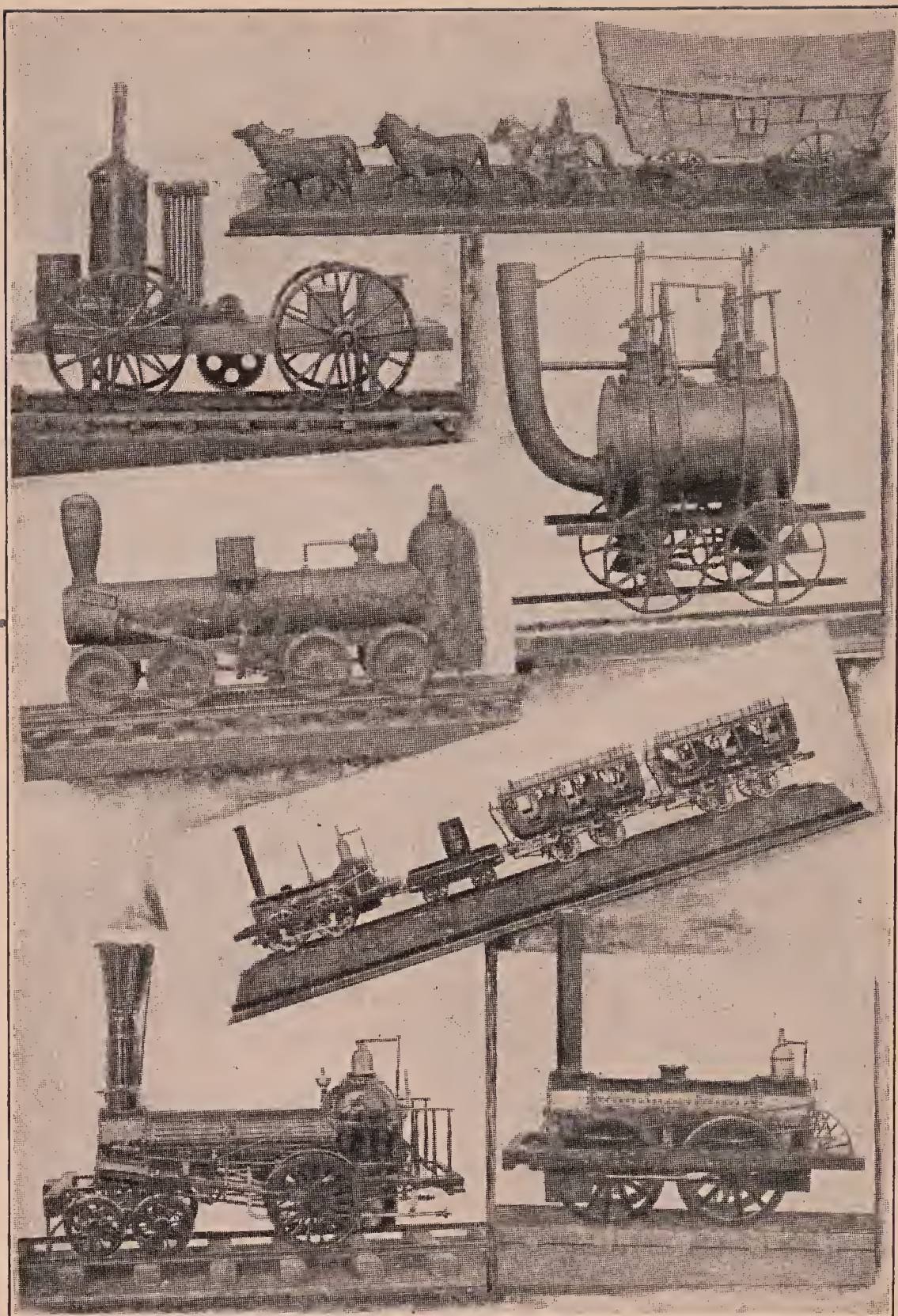
More than ten years passed after Stephenson's first successful trip before a railroad for steam transportation was begun in this country. John Quincy Adams, as President of the United States, turned the first spadeful of dirt in the construction of our first railroad, the Baltimore and Ohio. This road was built westward from Baltimore to Ellicott's Mill, a distance of thirteen miles. The engine "Tom Thumb" made its

initial trip on this road in 1831, covering the thirteen miles in one hour.

Within a year's time after the successful trial of the "Tom Thumb" on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, similar experiments were made on railroads in South Carolina and New York. In New York a prominent state official, after riding over the ten miles of track built westward from Albany, proposed the toast, "The Buffalo Railroad — may we soon breakfast in Utica, dine in Rochester, and sup with our friends on Lake Erie." Little did this man realize how soon his prophecy was to come true.

The engines and cars used in the early days appear strange to us now. In several states the tracks were owned by the state governments, and right to use the tracks was granted to the public. The result was that both horse cars and locomotives were sometimes used on the same track. This naturally caused much confusion, as the locomotives moved faster than the horses, so that it was often necessary to remove the horse car from the track to permit the locomotive to go puffing by.

Like many other inventions the locomotive found much opposition from some conservative people. Farmers in certain sections argued that the sparks from the smokestacks of the engines would set fire to the forests and burn the grain as it ripened in the fields. They also said that the rumbling of the cars and the whistling of the engines would frighten the



PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD COMPANY'S EXHIBIT

cows so that they would refuse to give down their milk, and that the hens would be alarmed to such an extent that they would cease to lay eggs.

About the time that the locomotive engine was invented, many of our brave pioneers were migrating westward across the Allegheny Mountains, taking up land in the region of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Kentucky, and Tennessee. There were no tracks westward, however. If one were to study a map showing the places of settlement in the Ohio Valley at that time, it would be seen that the pioneers always established their settlements on the banks of the Ohio River or on the banks of some of its tributaries. There were also a few settlements, even at this early time, on the Mississippi River. The rivers were the natural highways, in most cases the only means of communication with the outside world, and the early settlers feared to move far inland from them. The products of their farms were shipped to market by the river highway, and in the same way they obtained the few things they bought. In those early days people regarded the prairie country of what is now Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, and Nebraska as little better than desert waste.

The invention of the locomotive by George Stephenson had an even more profound effect upon the life and the development of this country than upon his own country, England. The railroads that were constructed took the place of the rivers as a means of transportation. The pioneers could go almost anywhere, knowing that



EAST AND WEST UNITED

Driving the last spike, May 10, 1869, at Promontory Point, Utah, connecting the Union and Central Pacific Railroads.

a railroad would follow. Railroads were even projected in territory ahead of settlement, the promoters confident that settlements would soon be made along the routes even to their terminals.

The first period of great railroad construction in this country was during Jackson's administration from 1828 to 1836. Prior to this canals had been dug as a means of transportation. Up to 1850 most of the track was laid to the east of the Appalachian Mountains. From 1850 to 1860 was the first great period of railroad building in the Mississippi Valley. Thousands of miles were laid east of the Mississippi as far north as the central part of Wisconsin and as far south as the Gulf

of Mexico. Several hundred miles of railroad were built west of the Mississippi River. By the year 1869, when the Union and Central Pacific railroads were completed, one could travel from the Atlantic to the Pacific by rail. This was just twenty-one years after the death of George Stephenson. Other transcontinental railroads were soon built, and this country has now become a network of railroads. In fact we have enough railroad track in the United States to encircle the Earth sixteen times. There are as many railroad employees in this country now as there were inhabitants in the original Thirteen Colonies. These employees are paid each year in wages two hundred times the amount we paid for the vast Louisiana Territory. In Africa the great railroad from Cairo to Cape Town is at present being constructed. It is over twice as long as our transcontinental roads. The Russian railroad from Petrograd to Vladivostok is also about five thousand miles long.

George Stephenson, although greatly honored by his government in the later years of his life, remained a quiet, patient, and studious man, caring little for the fame and glory that he had achieved. When he died in 1848, at the age of sixty-eight, he probably realized the important part the locomotive engine was to play in the rapid settlement of the United States. We in this country owe much to George Stephenson.

KARL MARX

1818-1883

KARL MARX was born of a well-to-do family in Prussia in 1818. He was just one year old when James Watt died. He grew up, therefore, at the time when the old system of hand manufacturing was passing away and small towns were growing into great industrial centers with thousands of factories filled with busy workmen. Karl's father was a scholarly man, and often discussed philosophy, religion, and history with his boy. It was through the influence of his father's instruction that Karl developed a liking for the liberal writings of Voltaire.

When he was only twenty years old his father died. Karl, who had been studying law, largely because his father wished him to, now felt free to give up that study which had never appealed to him and devote himself to journalism in which he was keenly interested. Before long this fiery young apostle of Voltaire was editing a radical newspaper in which he attacked the Prussian government for its interference with the freedom of the individual. The autocratic Prussian government banished young Marx, who then went to Paris.

While here he became interested in the working-man. He visited many factory towns and everywhere

he found misery. The sudden change in industrial conditions had brought great hardships to the people. There were many problems that needed to be solved, such as that of fair wages for workmen; sanitary conditions in factories; the number of hours of labor employers could require; the employment of women and children; provision for those injured in the factory as well as for those who became too old to work. Realizing that one reason for the sad plight of the laboring people was their ignorance, he established a school for them in which he gave them instruction at night. He was very farsighted in these early years, for even at that time he predicted labor unions and international alliances of workmen.

Banished from France because of these radical ideas, Marx fled to England. Here he found even more terrible working conditions than he had seen in France. The workmen with their families lived near the factories in squalid houses furnished by the factory owner. Women worked underground in mines, and there are instances where they were harnessed with mules to carts drawing heavy loads. Children of seven and even five years of age often worked twelve hours a day. There were no guards about machinery to protect life and limb. The injured and the aged were left to be cared for by their relatives whose wages were so small that they had barely enough for themselves.

Karl Marx and other thinkers believed that this was all wrong, especially when they saw the factory owners,

the capitalists, becoming immensely rich. They asked the question: What was the use of the French Revolution which freed the common people from oppression by an aristocracy of birth if that aristocracy is to be immediately supplanted by another aristocracy of wealth? They believed that the factory owners had become immensely wealthy because they had kept for themselves too large a portion of the profits of the factory. They thought that poverty and suffering would not exist among the workers except for the greed of their employers. Marx's solution of the problem was to have the means of production (in those days it meant factories) owned by the state so that all profits could be divided among those who actually performed the labor. This doctrine is called Socialism.

Centuries before the time of Marx men had dreamed of ideal states where all could share equally. One of these dreamers was Sir Thomas More, an Englishman, who, in 1516, sick at heart as he viewed the oppression of the common people by the nobility, wrote a book called *Utopia*. In Utopia, "Land of Nowhere," there was neither great riches nor poverty. Land was equally divided among the inhabitants, and life was so arranged that no one worked more than six hours a day. The remaining time was spent in rest, recreation, and study.

Another idealist was Robert Owen, a splendid man who tried to put his dreams of social equality into actual practice. He was one of the early socialists who believed that the injustices in industrial life could be

cured by reaching the heart of the capitalist. Owen himself had been a factory worker who, through his great ability, became a factory owner. Realizing the bad conditions in the factory towns and believing that the employees should own and run the factories, he thought his work in life was to set an example to other capitalists by giving to his employees the factories in which they worked. He also used his wealth in establishing small communities in which the lands and factories were to be owned by the community. One of the numerous towns that Robert Owen founded was New Harmony, Indiana. Like his many similar enterprises, it proved unsuccessful. Owen failed to understand that while he could give his factories and his wealth to his employees, he could not give them his initiative and his genius, which were the elements that had formerly made his enterprises successful. As Owen's plans were like those of the ideal "Utopia," his socialism is known as Utopian Socialism.

Karl Marx, on the other hand, is said to have been a careful student of economics, and the socialism he advocated is known as Scientific Modern Socialism.

During part of the time that he lived in England, Marx and his family were in dire poverty. This was somewhat relieved in 1852 when he became London correspondent of a leading New York paper. His theories as to socialism were then published and widely read in this country, so that Karl Marx was distinctly the teacher of socialism in America as well as in Europe.

During our Civil War the English factory owners, competing with our northern manufacturers for raw material and markets, tried to influence the English government to recognize the independence of the Confederacy, so that they could get raw cotton from the South and sell their cotton goods there free of duty. Karl Marx, as a leader of the workingmen of England, made it clear to them that the North fought in behalf of the freedom of the working classes. Huge mass meetings of workmen were held by Marx to celebrate Lincoln's Proclamation of Emancipation.

While in London, through years of labor, Marx wrote a book, *Das Kapital*, which is regarded as a textbook for scientific socialists. Socialists to-day, however, are of very different degrees in their demands; the most conservative wish the government to buy from the present owners great resources like coal and iron mines and large industrial plants, while the most radical wish many, many things now in private hands to become public property.

Most people believe that socialism would kill individual initiative; that few men would try to achieve great success in the business world if they knew that the profits of their enterprise would immediately be taken over by their government. They think that the right to private property is the greatest incentive to men to work and be thrifty.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

1769-1821

THE great Napoleon Bonaparte, whose name is forever linked with the glory of France, and who for fifteen years dominated all Europe, was not a Frenchman by birth but the son of a poor but titled Italian family whose home was on the island of Corsica. Just a few months before Napoleon was born, Corsica, which had been struggling to overthrow the power of Genoa, was sold to France. It was at Ajaccio, in Corsica, now a French possession, that Napoleon was born, August 15, 1769.

Napoleon grew up in a large family. Besides his elder brother, Joseph, he had six younger brothers and sisters, all of whom shared with him in his later triumphs and glories. Napoleon himself not only resembled his mother in appearance but inherited from her an energetic disposition and a strong will. As a child he was obstinate and difficult to control and paid much less attention to his studies than he did to the heroic stories he overheard of Paoli, the defeated Corsican leader who had fought for the independence of the island.

When Napoleon was ten years old, his father sent him to a preparatory school in France to learn French

in order that he might later enter the military school at Brienne. Although Napoleon was not a good French student and never learned to speak that language perfectly, he did unusually well in the practical sciences, in history, and in mathematics — subjects which interested him keenly.

Life at Brienne was very different from his carefree existence under sunny Italian skies. Napoleon was sensitive to the taunts of his fellow classmates, who ridiculed his poverty and belittled his noble birth, and he grew daily more gloomy and silent. He used to sit at his books, alone and self-absorbed, not always studying the pages but often brooding over the insults received at the hands of these young French aristocrats, and dreaming of the time when he might win revenge by freeing his native Corsica from France.

Although he made few friends, his natural qualities as a leader were early recognized by the other students. On one occasion, after an unusually heavy snowfall, the boys, under Napoleon's direction, built a huge snow fort. They then separated into attacking and defending parties, and they furiously engaged in this mimic warfare until the authorities stopped it because the contestants mixed stones with the snow and many of them were injured. Napoleon commanded the attack. During the fight one of the boys on his side dared to disobey his orders. Napoleon immediately knocked him down with one of these weighted snowballs, which gave him a bad cut on the forehead. Many years later,

when Napoleon was emperor, a strange man managed to obtain an audience with him. Napoleon refused to grant what the man wanted. When, however, the stranger pushed back a lock of hair and showed the scar on his forehead, recalling to Napoleon that snow fight of long ago, the emperor, with his flashing smile, and quick, decisive manner, granted his former school-mate's request.

Napoleon went straight from military school into the French army, a haughty and ambitious youth, still a Corsican at heart. During his early years of service he made frequent visits to Corsica, each one strengthening his desire to win freedom for his native land. On his first visit home he found that his father had died, leaving his large family almost in want. On his last trip, in 1792, Paoli tried to persuade him to join with him in surrendering the island to the English. When Napoleon, disgusted at Paoli's desertion, refused, Paoli committed the act of treason himself. Napoleon immediately collected several hundred men and attempted to expel the English. Overcome by the great odds against him, for most of the Corsicans sided with Paoli, Napoleon was forced to flee from Corsica with his entire family.

Back again in France, hated by the Corsicans, and dismissed from the French army as a deserter, Napoleon, desperately poor, struggled through one of the darkest periods of his life. As France needed officers at the time, he was again given a commission, and for

a few months he had some successful military service. Then one day, believing that he had been insulted by some action of his superiors, the hot-headed young man took offense and handed in his resignation. He felt himself capable of great things; he saw no door open to him. At one time he thought seriously of committing suicide.

It is not to be wondered at that Madame Josephine Beauharnais, whom he met and fell in love with at this time, found nothing particularly attractive in this thin, sallow-faced soldier, too short to be impressive and too shabby to be taken seriously. It was hard for her to believe in Napoleon as intensely as he believed in himself. But Napoleon began to show his military skill on several occasions, notably when he saved the Convention by turning the artillery upon the mob. When it was rumored, moreover, that he might be made commander-in-chief of the army in Italy, she began to realize that the glow in his eyes, when he had talked of his future, might mean something, after all. She grew to believe in his genius, and, in spite of the scorn of her friends, promised to marry him. Two days before their marriage her confidence was justified, for Napoleon was put in full charge of the campaign of the French Republic against Italy.

Just a few weeks before he had been without a position and with gloomy prospects; at one stride he suddenly attained to one of the highest military positions in France.

“Fortune is on my side,” he wrote in great enthusiasm to his brother. From that time on he believed that Fate had great things in store for him, and that he was, indeed, the “Man of Destiny” for France.

Napoleon quickly formed his plan of campaign against Italy and Austria. He cleverly separated his enemies, defeated the king of Sardinia, and then set out after the retreating Austrians. In a number of successful engagements the Austrian armies were quickly defeated, and Napoleon was soon marching toward Vienna. When he was almost within sight of the city, the Austrian court hastened to sign peace terms.

In the treaty that was later made, Napoleon gave the first signs of what was to be his attitude throughout life toward the smaller countries of Europe. He changed the map of Europe with an absolute disregard for anything except the glory of France. He took the Netherlands from Austria and gave it to France. He seized one of the northern states of Italy and made it into a republic and established a brilliant court for himself at Milan. Here, as General Bonaparte, he began to indulge his love of pomp and admiration and to reveal his underlying determination to make himself master of France.

But, realizing that the time was not yet ripe and that he must win more victories to dazzle the French people, he made up his mind to attack France’s greatest enemy, England, by conquering Egypt and threatening British commerce in the Mediterranean. He had dreams also

*Paul Delaroche*

NAPOLEON

of breaking England's power over India and adding that rich land to the dominions of France.

This Egyptian campaign, however, was by no means wholly successful; for Nelson's victory over the French fleet cut off the French troops in Egypt from Europe. While Napoleon was winning some victories in Egypt, the plague broke out among his men, and the army doctors refused to touch those who were suffering from

the disease. Napoleon, utterly regardless of his own safety, went among his sick men, cheering and comforting them until the doctors, made bold by their chief's example, went to work to care for the unfortunate victims.

It was just about this time that Napoleon received a package of newspapers from France, which were full of the accounts of the new attacks which the European allies were planning against the French Republic, which was at that time in a sadly disorganized state.

Believing this to be his opportunity, Napoleon hurried back to Paris and formed a conspiracy to overthrow the government. Backed by his soldiers, he rushed into the Assembly Hall and scattered the legislators sitting there. Surrounded by his supporters, he assumed charge of the government, and General Bonaparte became First Consul of the Republic. A new constitution was made, but Napoleon saw to it that practically all power was in his own hands.

Having won control through his military successes, Napoleon felt it was necessary to continue the war in order to keep his hold on the government. Although he was now head of the Republic, he again took command of the army against Austria. By the marvelous feat of crossing the Alps, he descended unexpectedly upon the Austrian army and defeated them overwhelmingly. This time, when the treaty of peace was made, Napoleon seized for France the whole of the left bank of the Rhine.

After peace had been declared Napoleon set about to restore order and prosperity in France. He encouraged the emigrant nobles to return because he was eager to surround himself with an elegant court. He restored old titles of nobility, abolished during the revolution, and he and Josephine reigned as king and queen in everything except name.

One of his greatest services to the nation at this time was the organization of a new code of laws, making them clearer to understand and more uniform all over the different provinces of France. He extended this code to all his possessions in Europe and also in Louisiana, which he sold a few years later to the United States. To this day laws dating back to the Napoleonic code are still to be found upon the statute books of Louisiana.

In 1802 the people, happy in the reëstablishment of peace and safety voted Napoleon Consul for life. Even this did not satisfy the enormous ambition of Napoleon, and two years later he declared himself emperor of France and had himself crowned with great pomp and ceremony at the Cathedral of Notre Dame.

The achievement of this power only stimulated more far-reaching ambition in the heart of Napoleon. He saw himself the supreme ruler of Europe, with all the nations under his control and their kings subject to his authority. "There will be no rest in Europe," he said, "until it is under a single chief." And Napoleon did

not doubt that Fate had singled him out to be this great overlord.

With this purpose in mind, Napoleon determined to invade the British Isles. He massed his troops on the French coast, ready to cross the channel. In the midst of these preparations a young English sailor was brought before Napoleon. This sailor had escaped from a prison camp, had made his way to the coast, and had constructed there a raft on which he meant to sail out into the channel, hoping to be rescued by some English vessel. When Napoleon learned that the boy had been willing to undergo all these risks in order to see his mother, who was old and sick, he was deeply moved. He gave the sailor a purse of gold for his mother and had him conveyed in safety to one of the English vessels.

For some reason the proposed invasion of England was never made, but Napoleon had succeeded in getting England thoroughly alarmed.

Turning his attention again to the battlefield in Europe, Napoleon demolished the Austrian armies at Austerlitz, broke the power of Prussia at Jena, won a great victory over Russia at Friedland, and marched in triumph into the Spanish capital.

One reason for Napoleon's sweeping successes was the love and enthusiasm of his soldiers for their victorious leader. He had a wonderful power of inspiring personal devotion. Once during the campaign against Austria Napoleon was slightly wounded in the leg.



NAPOLEON IN HIS CORONATION ROBES

David Jacques

When the news spread, the soldiers, completely forgetting the Austrians against whom they were fighting, crowded around their beloved emperor, and they would not leave until they were reassured that the injury was not serious. As soon as the wound had been dressed Napoleon mounted his horse and rode along the lines to satisfy the men that he was not dangerously hurt.

These years, 1808 to 1812, marked the zenith of Napoleon's power. At his command the Holy Roman Empire had been dissolved. He had made himself king of Italy, and Protector of the Confederation of the German states along the Rhine. His brother Joseph was ruling as king of Spain. His brother Louis was seated upon the throne of Holland. He had a new subject kingdom, Warsaw, made out of Polish territory taken from Prussia. Westphalia, another kingdom created out of Prussian lands, was ruled over by his brother Jerome. His brother-in-law was king of Naples. In fact, all of Western Europe, except England, paid allegiance to Emperor Napoleon.

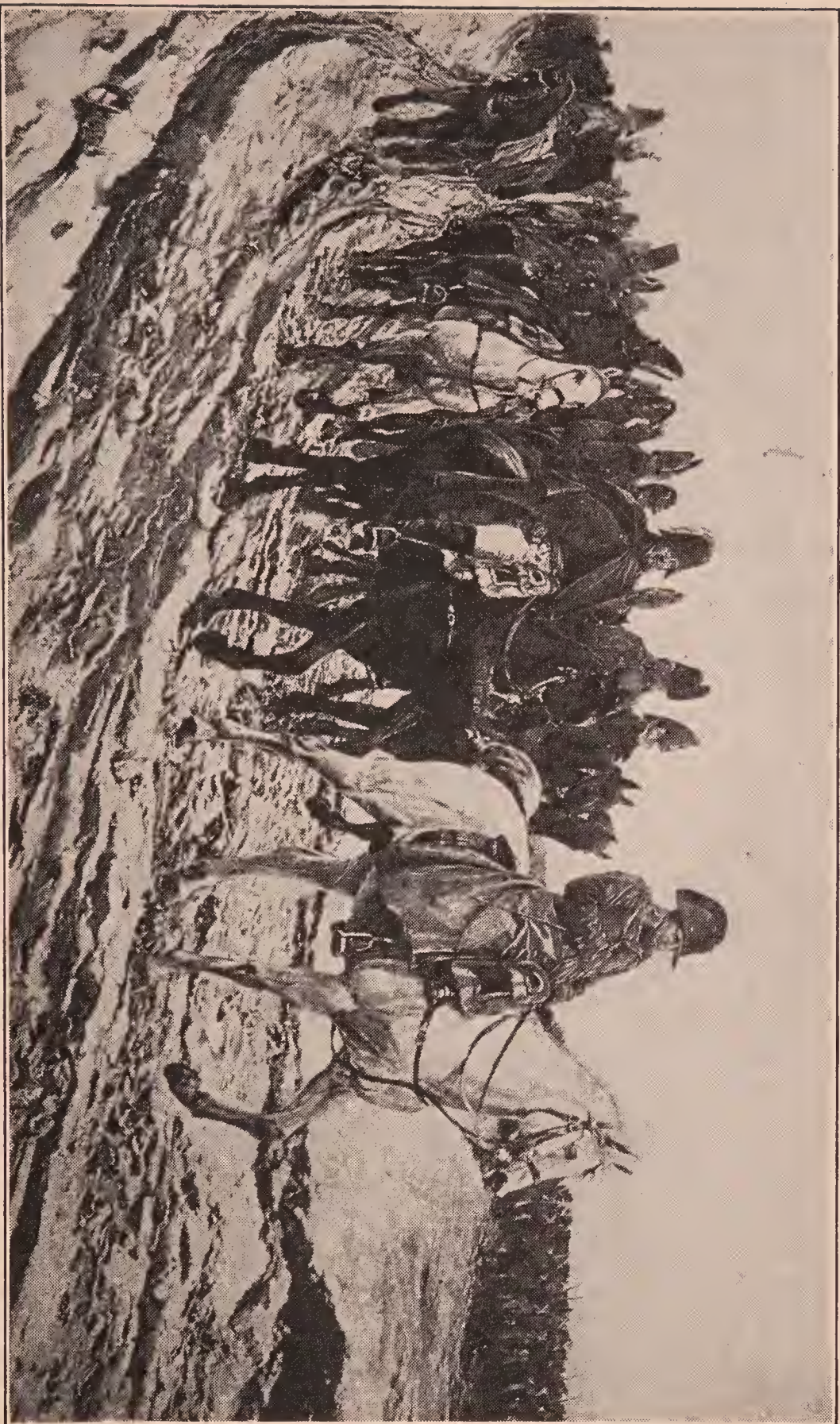
As no children had been born to Napoleon and Josephine, Napoleon, determined to have an heir to his vast dominions, divorced Josephine, even though they loved each other, and married Marie Louise, daughter of the Austrian emperor and a grand niece of Marie Antoinette. The son born of this second marriage was called the king of Rome, and, although he was never to rule over France, the possession of an heir gratified Napoleon's ambition.





With the ideal of making Paris the center of Europe, Napoleon spent enormous sums in beautifying the city, building wonderful arches in the streets and splendid bridges across the Seine. He created a new nobility and tried to win the support of influential persons by giving them honors and huge incomes. Every day he grew more arrogant and despotic. The new system of education which he established had as its definite purpose the training of children to perfect obedience and loyalty to his absolute power. As this power increased, his fear of losing it made him suspicious of the slightest hint of disloyalty, and he began persecuting and imprisoning those who dared to criticize anything he said or did.

One of Napoleon's despotic acts, aimed at his unconquerable enemy, England, was the beginning of his downfall. This was his policy of blockading England from all trade with France and her allies. When England decreed that neutral vessels could trade with France only if they first entered an English port and paid a tax of twenty-five per cent on their cargo, Napoleon announced that any vessel submitting to these English terms would be captured. The neutral nations, among which was the United States, were thus caught between two fires. In the United States many of the vessels were owned by New Englanders. These now withdrew their money from the shipping industry and invested it in factories where they could manufacture the articles they had formerly imported from Europe. By the close of the War of 1812 the factories were



THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW

J. L. E. Messonier

firmly established, and New England became the manufacturing center of the United States.

This continental blockade was particularly displeasing to Russia, one of the few countries of Europe not completely under Napoleon's control. Napoleon, now believing himself strong enough to conquer this great country, gathered together a huge army of four hundred thousand men and invaded Russia. The Russians, retreating before his attacks, destroying villages, bridges, and food supplies as they went, lured the French army farther and farther on into a barren waste land. Although Napoleon entered Moscow a victor, he found the city deserted and in flames. A heavy snowfall added to the discomfort of the troops, and the French army, greatly reduced in numbers, began its slow retreat. Suffering intensely from cold, lack of food, and the constant attacks of the Russian peasants along the route, Napoleon's army reached Poland — only twenty thousand surviving of the original splendid army of four hundred thousand.

When he returned to Paris, however, he concealed from the French the extent of the disaster, and, collecting a new army, he set out to crush the rising spirit of nationalism in Prussia. This time he met total defeat at Leipzig at the hands of the allied armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria. This was the end of Napoleon's domination of Germany and Holland. When Napoleon refused to agree to the peace terms which dictated that he was henceforth to be satisfied



MORNING OF THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO
Napoleon is seated studying a map.

Ernest Crofts

with the control of France, the allies marched upon Paris, and in 1814 forced Napoleon to abdicate.

The great conqueror of Europe was banished to the little island of Elba. Here he was permitted to retain the title of emperor and have sovereign authority over his miniature kingdom.

Just a year later, when reports began to reach Napoleon of the dissatisfaction of the French people with their new king, Louis XVIII, he left Elba with a few of his followers and landed in southern France. When the government heard of his return, troops were at once dispatched to capture him and prevent his reaching Paris. But when the soldiers saw Napoleon, their great war leader, all their love and enthusiasm for him revived, and instead of taking him prisoner they joined his followers and escorted him in triumph back to Paris. All along the route he was greeted with welcoming shouts, and France again placed him at the head of the nation.

The allies immediately joined forces to crush "the enemy and destroyer of the world's peace." Napoleon, following his old tactics, determined to move against the enemy before they were prepared to meet him. At first he was successful in driving back the Prussians. But on June 18, 1815, the English, under the command of Wellington, checked his advance at Waterloo, and, reënforced by the Prussians, completely overwhelmed his army in one of the most famous battles of the world.

Napoleon's downfall was complete. This time he was banished to the lonely and desolate British island of St. Helena. His farewell was deeply touching, for Napoleon, unscrupulous conqueror that he was, had great personal magnetism and a power of endearing himself to those who had fought with him.

"You see, my lord," said one of his friends who was not allowed to go into banishment with him, "those who stay behind are weeping."

On the gloomy island of St. Helena, with its walls of rock rising abruptly from the sea, Napoleon lived for six years, reading his favorite books, writing the story of his life, and gazing hopelessly across the sea where lay the scene of his former triumphs.

He died May 5, 1821, and was buried at St. Helena. Twenty years later the French government brought Napoleon's body to Paris, and interred it with great ceremony in a magnificent tomb under the gilded dome of a famous old church. On the pavement around the tomb are inscribed the names of his greatest victories, and to this spot come scores of visitors daily to muse upon the great Napoleon and his amazing career.

HORATIO NELSON

1758-1805

THROUGH the cold mists of a London fog looms a colossal column sharply outlined among the indistinct objects about it — “Trafalgar!” The name rings through the mind of the spectator at a glance. Even as England’s beautiful monument to the hero of Trafalgar and the Nile stands out from its surroundings, so Horatio Nelson himself ranks above all others in his naval genius.

Horatio Nelson was born in the picturesque little town of Burham Thorpe, England, the son of a country minister. Of his early life little is known except the bare facts. Horatio’s mother died when he was only nine, leaving his poor father to struggle under the heavy burden of caring for eight children. Horatio himself was never strong, but he inherited his mother’s weak constitution. In spite of this, he proposed to his uncle, who at the death of Horatio’s mother three years before had promised to care for one of the boys, that he be allowed to go with him to sea. His uncle was astonished at the proposition but agreed to take him along, making the cheerful comment that the first time they got into action a cannon ball might take off Horatio’s head and thus provide for him! One would think that

this might have dampened the spirits of a lad of twelve, but Horatio only looked forward with impatience to the time when he should feel the rolling deck beneath his feet.

On a chill and dreary spring morning the eagerly anticipated summons to set sail was received. Horatio's father accompanied him to London, where he left him to find his own way to his uncle's ship, the *Raisnable*. Here a cold reception awaited him. No one seemed to know anything about him. At first he was not even permitted to go on board. Fortunately he met an officer who knew the situation and took him on the ship. His uncle had not yet arrived, and Horatio spent his first day at sea pacing the deck alone, no one paying the slightest attention to him.

This sea trip to the West Indies gave Horatio his first taste of navy life. It was a bitter one. Horatio was not strong, and the life was so rough and lonely that his boyhood dreams were rather rudely dispelled. It was not in him, however, to give up, and he hung on to sea life in spite of its hardships. Just how severe these could be he learned on the next voyage when they set out for the North Pole. The *Racehorse*, caught in the ice floes of the polar regions, faced the prospect of wintering in the Arctic. The crew of the *Racehorse*, with terrible memories of a previous experience, made every effort to free the ice-bound ship.

Horatio was put in command of one of the short expeditions to explore for a passage to open water. On



Engraved by W. Read

NELSON

this trip he narrowly escaped death. Some officers in the boat shot and wounded a walrus. The enraged animal plunged into the water and immediately emerged with a horde of companions and charged the boat. A huge walrus succeeded in tearing an oar from one of the men, and it was with difficulty that they kept the beasts from upsetting the boat until reënforcements

arrived. At the increase of their enemy, the herd of sea monsters abandoned the battle. After much hard work and great anxiety, the *Racehorse* got free from its icy grip, and the men returned safely to England without further adventure.

Following this came many other voyages, each one exciting and dangerous enough to be made into a story. Nelson, still a very young man, saw the lands of East India and of Central America, and experienced danger and disease. Promotion followed these trials and hardships. On one occasion Nelson was presented to a brother of the king, who remarked that he never saw a captain in the navy so much like a boy.

During the American Revolution King George sent Nelson to cruise in the waters of Canada and the West Indies. Once, while Nelson was discussing with the governor of some islands in the English West Indies the trouble with the American colonies, Nelson explained to the older man exactly what he intended to do. The governor was slightly offended that this young captain should presume to dictate to him. Said he, "An old general is not in the habit of taking advice from young gentlemen." With that coolness and assurance that never failed him, Nelson replied, "Sir, I am as old as the prime minister of England and think myself as capable of commanding one of his Majesty's ships as that minister (Pitt the Younger) is of governing the state."

At the outbreak of the war of the European nations

against the radical French revolutionary party, which had just executed Louis XVI, England ordered Nelson to the critical spot in the Mediterranean Sea, Corsica. Bastia, the point of attack, was taken by twelve hundred sailors against four thousand of the enemy. Nelson himself paid dearly for his victories, for during a later engagement he lost the sight of one of his eyes through what was considered at first a slight accident caused by a splintering shell.

Nelson's first great naval victory was won at Cape St. Vincent against the Spanish fleet, then on its way to join the French fleet at Brest. "Westminster Abbey or Victory" was the cry with which he cheered on his men while boarding one of the Spanish ships. For this great achievement his invaluable services to his country were at last recognized. Up to this time, though Nelson had taken part in one hundred twenty engagements, he was almost unknown by the English nation. He now hoisted a rear admiral's flag over his vessel and attached to his name "Sir," which had been conferred upon him. Fame whispered his name around the world, and Nelson, happy that his services were finally appreciated, took most joy in the honest pride of his old father who gloried in his son's renown.

In a later and unsuccessful attack on the Spanish possessions in the Canary Islands, when several small boats containing officers and men landed in pitch darkness, unseen, to take some fortifications, a cannon ball whizzed by just as Nelson stepped from the boat,

wounding his right arm. As a result of this injury his arm had to be amputated. The operation was so badly performed that he was in pain night and day for several months before the wound was completely healed.

By the time Nelson was in action again Napoleon had just set sail for Egypt. The English, with Nelson at their head, discovered Napoleon's fleet in the harbor of Alexandria. There, under cover of darkness, a terrific struggle began. The French admiral was killed and Nelson, badly wounded, had a very narrow escape from death. The light of dawn revealed gaping, blackened hulks, but the English flag proudly waved above the Egyptian fort. The French fleet was completely destroyed, and the French army, left behind in Egypt, saw with dismay all hope cut off and Napoleon's dream of Egyptian conquest completely shattered.

When Nelson returned to Naples to recover from the wounds received in the battle of the Nile, the honors heaped upon him were countless. Lady Hamilton, the wife of an old friend in the service, undoubtedly saved his life from the pitiless fever that followed his wounds. Inspired with admiration for the great English hero, she used her influence with the king of Naples and secured ships and supplies, needed for immediate action, which Nelson had tried again and again to get from England. Lady Hamilton became the toast and idol of the English fleet.

*Turner*

THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR

The scene of the war was suddenly shifted to Naples. The French as usual were the aggressors, and treachery gave the kingdom up to them under Nelson's very eyes. His already deadly hatred of the French was made more bitter. A heroic struggle followed between Nelson and the forces of Napoleon, and by a supreme effort Naples was saved from the grasping hand of the "little corporal."

But Nelson's stay in the Mediterranean was not prolonged, for trouble arose with the Danes in the north, who had decided to stand for France. Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and France, frightened by Nelson's continued victories, combined in a determined effort to wrest the sovereignty of the sea from Britain. Copenhagen was the point where the enemies clashed. During the terrible conflict which ensued and after three long hours of fighting, Sir Hyde Parker, commander of the English fleet, hoisted the signal to leave off

action. When Nelson's attention was called to it, he cried out: "Leave off action? You know, Foley, I have only one eye! I have a right to be blind sometimes." Putting the glasses to his blind eye, he remarked with some bitterness, "I really do not see the signal." The gallant English, led by the fearless Nelson, destroyed nearly every Danish ship after two more hours of hard fighting.

But there was to be little rest for England's watchdog of the seas while Napoleon was cherishing his dreams of world domination. Nelson, now commander-in-chief of the British navy, was sent to cruise about Toulon in order to blockade the French fleet. Suddenly the French fleet disappeared. Nelson combed the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, going all the way to the Indies and back in search of the enemy. At last one morning they discovered the elusive fleet some ten miles ahead in the Atlantic, a short distance from the Strait of Gibraltar. The *Victory*, leading the British ships, soon forced the enemy into battle. Nelson, standing on the bridge in full uniform, wearing all his decorations of honor, directed the ships into action. Both sides realized that a fight to the finish was necessary. Coolly the English vessels, greatly outnumbered by the French, ran under heavy fire directly alongside the enemy. To break the French line, it was necessary to board their ships. Naturally the admiral's ship was of first importance, and the admiral himself the chief target. A target indeed was Nelson, his orders revealing plainly

*J. L. G. Ferris*

DEATH OF LORD NELSON

his rank. Twice he ordered firing to cease, thinking the French to have struck. The second time, as the smoke cleared a little, a sharpshooter in one of the French ships sent Nelson's death bullet on its fatal way. In spite of the pain, Nelson quick-wittedly covered his face and his stars lest the crew recognize him being carried below and quit the battle for want of a leader.

Nelson was only human, for, when asked how much

pain he was suffering, he replied that it was so great that he wished he were dead. "Yet," he added in a low voice, "one would like to live a little longer too." Even as his sight began to fail the news of victory was brought to him. Trafalgar had been won!

"Thank God, I have done my duty," were the last words he uttered.

According to his wishes he was laid in old St. Paul instead of Westminster Abbey, but this does not dim the glory of the great career of the man who established the English supremacy on the seas.

ARTHUR WELLESLEY

The Duke of Wellington

1769–1852

ARTHUR WELLESLEY, who led one of the most brilliant military careers in history, was born at Dublin Castle, Ireland, in the spring of 1769, just three months before the birth of the young Corsican Napoleon, whose dream of world empire he was to shatter at Waterloo.

Very little is known of Arthur's early life. His father, the Earl of Mornington, loved music and composed it. Arthur's mother, also of aristocratic family, had little fondness for her son—her feeling toward him being “not far from aversion.” For her other sons she seemed to have had more affection. There were three other boys in the family, each of whom made his mark in his day, but none achieved the world-wide fame of her ugly duckling, Arthur. The family name of the house, originally Wesley, was afterward changed to Wellesley.

After early school days at Chelsea, Arthur went for a brief period to Eton. Although he was keenly interested in outdoor games, he did not shine as a student, and the most interesting fact that is recorded from his life there was that he fought and won a battle with

“Bobus” Smith. But it may well be true that in holding his own on the playground at Eton, young Arthur was training for Waterloo.

From Eton he was sent to one of the military schools for which France was famous. Here Arthur, who was not very strong physically, nor very attentive to his studies, spent much of his time rambling about the streets of the picturesque old French town and climbing along the cliffs beside the sea. Close at his heels was his little terrier, “Vick,” who followed him everywhere; and when they returned from long walks he curled up beside his young master on the sofa while he read.

When Wellesley was eighteen years old he was made an ensign in the Seventy-third Foot. From the first he took his profession as a soldier seriously. A few days after he joined the Seventy-third as ensign, he ordered one of the privates to be weighed, first in his ordinary clothes and then in heavy marching order, so that he might know what was to be expected of a soldier on service. A military officer of high rank, to whom he later told this incident, observed that this was remarkable foresight in so young a man.

“Why,” replied the duke, “I was not so young as not to know that since I had undertaken a profession, I had better try to understand it.”

After only a few months’ service as ensign, he was made a lieutenant; he was captain some three years later. Just at this time, at the age of twenty-one, he

was elected to a public office as a representative from Trim, a family seat. This position he held for four years. He had no natural gift for oratory, and all his life excelled in action rather than in words.

He was at this time an awkward and shy young man when it came to mingling with other people. He did not make friends easily, and when he went to dances he usually spent most of the evening sitting alone, because he was too bashful to ask any one to dance with him. At the close of a very brilliant ball, Wellesley, after a lonely evening, was beginning to wonder how he could get home. As yet, no one had offered to take him, and, being a poor young man, he had no carriage of his own. Luckily the musicians, in whom he had shown great interest, invited him to ride with them. Later, when Arthur Wellesley was known far and wide as "the Duke," a great lady laughingly said, "We would not leave you *now* to go home with the fiddlers."

In the meantime his military promotions continued. When he was not yet twenty-four years of age, he was promoted to the rank of major and one year later was made lieutenant colonel. From the time that he became major, all the unawakened, practical energy of his nature was aroused. "I believe," he said, "that I owe most of my success to the attention I always paid to the inferior part of tactics as a regimental officer. There were very few men in the army who knew these details better than I did; it is the foundation of all

*Jean Baptiste Isabey*

DUKE OF WELLINGTON

military knowledge. When you are sure that you know the power of your tools and the way to handle them, you are able to give your mind altogether to the greater considerations which the presence of the enemy forces upon you."

Wellesley's first opportunity at actual fighting came in July, 1794. Although he had risen high in military rank and knew how to administer and handle a regiment on the drill ground, he had never heard a shot fired in battle. When he was sent to join the army of the Duke of York, at Antwerp, fighting against the

French, and had to command the scanty rear guard of a defeated army in a slow retreat through a long and bitter winter, he learned how much disaster teaches a soldier. As he himself put it long afterward, with a certain scorn in his voice: "I learned more by seeing our own faults and the defects of our system in the campaign in Holland than anywhere else."

This unhappy experience in the Low Countries disgusted Wellington with a soldier's career, and he was willing at the end of his campaign to give up all his opportunities for fame on the battle field for a public office in Dublin.

But the call of the army was strong, and two years later we find him in India, where for eight years he had a training in the art of war on a grand scale. He had not been in India a month before he was organizing an army for a campaign, and he found himself meeting the same problems that Clive had earlier wrestled with. A powerful native ruler was combining with the French in the hope of driving the British from the south of India. The native troops more than tripled those of the English in number. Against such odds he battered down their stronghold and fixed for all time British government in southern India.

Two years later he led an attack against the warlike Mahrattas, bands of horsemen who plundered and devastated British property in India. Although they outnumbered his men eight to one, he defeated them so decisively that he may be said to have successfully



WELLINGTON'S MARCH FROM QUATRE BRAS TO WATERLOO

Ernest Crofts

completed the work in India begun by Robert Clive.

It was a seasoned and experienced general who next led his armies into the great struggle of the Peninsula War against the forces of Napoleon, and yet he was still under forty years of age. Although he had a small force and was somewhat hindered in his work by older generals who at first took matters out of his control, Wellington succeeded in driving the French troops out of Portugal. In the later campaign of 1812 Wellington, by superior military skill, cut asunder the French forces near Salamanca, and won a decisive victory. He brought to an end four years of oppression by the French and was hailed in Madrid as a hero and deliverer. In the next year when the French reënforcements poured into Spain, he united the Spanish and British troops under his command and drove the French over the Pyrenees.

The climax of Wellington's military career was his overwhelming defeat of Napoleon on June 18, 1815, in the great Battle of Waterloo. He dispelled Napoleon's dream of world conquest and gave peace to Europe for forty years.

After this crowning achievement, the Duke of Wellington had almost as many years of life before him as he had behind him. The victor of Waterloo was forty-six years old. He lived to the ripe old age of eighty-three.

When the military hero turned to politics, it is not surprising to find that he carried over into his public

life some of the qualities most necessary in war — bravery and belief in himself and in the government which he had defended. He was naturally a conservative. In 1828, when he was made prime minister, the country was in a turmoil over the question of extending the right to vote to thousands of its people.

So strong was the sentiment against the Tory party which opposed reform that the king had great difficulty in finding any one brave enough, under the circumstances, to head a Tory ministry. Wellington was courageous enough to face unpopularity and to form an anti-reform ministry, but he could not find enough men equally brave to fill the other places in the Cabinet. He therefore reported to the king that he could not form a ministry, that he feared even the power of the troops would be unable to dissolve the mass meetings of the people, and advised him to give way. Wellington, who was a soldier rather than a thinker, did not believe in the reform bill, but like a good general he knew when to retreat in order to save the situation.

He persuaded about one hundred of the peers to remain at home when the measure came up, and this cleared the way for the passage of the great Reform Bill of 1832. The bill remedied some great and long-standing abuses. It reduced the number of representatives from small aristocratic boroughs and increased the number from the large manufacturing towns which had recently grown up all over England as the result of the Industrial Revolution. As a result, the control of par-

liament was taken out of the hands of the small minority of aristocrats which had dominated it so long and put into the hands of the middle classes of England.

For a time there was peace, but the agitation that died down in 1832 broke out again five years later when those who desired still further reforms drew up the "People's Charter," one of the chief points of which was that every man in the kingdom should have a vote. The Chartists grew in number and power, and in 1848 there was a huge meeting of twenty-five thousand Chartists who proposed a violent attack upon the government if it did not give way to their demands. A little later when the Chartists threatened that a force of half a million men would carry their petition for reform to parliament, the government was alarmed and put a large force of special constables under the command of the aged but still courageous Duke of Wellington.

This was one of the last acts of the great soldier, then in his eightieth year. He succeeded in dispersing the mob, but he only delayed the reforms which later Gladstone, Victoria's greatest prime minister, was to establish.

Wellington died in 1852, at the age of eighty-three, and was buried beside England's greatest naval hero, Nelson, in St. Paul's Cathedral. Side by side these two will remain in the memories of man — the one who gave England supremacy on the sea, the other who brought victory on land when the fate of Europe was in the balance.

PRINCE CLEMENS WENZEL NEPOMUK LOTHAR METTERNICH

1773-1859

ON May 15, 1773, a golden-haired, blue-eyed boy first saw the light of day in a splendid palace in Coblenz. He was born an aristocrat, and he was bred an aristocrat, until it was said of him in later years that he considered himself more aristocratic than the Austrian emperor himself.

His early education was in the hands of tutors who saw to it that the young prince became thoroughly imbued with the ideals of the aristocratic House of the Hapsburgs. To conclude his education and prepare himself for his chosen field of diplomacy, he entered the Strassburg University. Here it must be admitted his preparation was mostly social. Metternich was "no burner of midnight oil." He loved a gay life and, for this reason, made no extraordinary record in scholarship.

His handsome face and grace and charm of manner made him a great favorite among the fair sex. These same qualities combined with his quick wit, polished speech, and tactful way of handling people marked him out as a natural diplomat. He had, too,

a princely air of elegance that cast a glamor over people, and it is said that this was one of the reasons that Napoleon Bonaparte wanted the young prince to come to the court of Paris to represent Austria.

Metternich's business at the French court, however, was to check Napoleon's ambitions, especially where they threatened Austria. He fitted well into the festive French court and mingled love and politics in a way that won for him the title of "Le Ministre Papillon" (the Butterfly Minister).

After Waterloo in 1815 Metternich returned to Austria to become the real ruler there and to assume for many years a leadership in world affairs as conspicuous almost as that of Napoleon.

Now that Napoleon had been checked, Metternich began his unceasing efforts to stem the growing tide of liberalism throughout Europe. Under his influence the great powers of England, Russia, Prussia, and Austria met to form an alliance to keep the peace of Europe. They planned very frankly to fight reform wherever it cropped up.

Metternich's own country, Austria, was a stronghold of aristocracy. The people had no part in the making of laws or taxes. Feudalism was still in force to a large extent, for serfs could not leave the land without the lords' permission and were forced to give feudal service to them. Everything that might improve the state of the poor and thus lessen the power of the aristocracy was prohibited.

One reason for this oppression was the fact that Austria was made up of many different races — Germans, Slavs, Poles, Magyars, Roumanians, Italians, etc. — and this prevented any strong feeling of patriotism. Her rulers felt that the only way to maintain power, and prevent these groups from forming nations of their own, was to keep the people almost in ignorance and slavery. The slightest uprising would mean a general break-up of the whole empire.

Prince Metternich was just the man to carry out this policy. He believed in divinely appointed kings and hated any signs among the people of interest in the new and rapidly spreading ideas of republicanism. For this reason he fought all clubs and organizations that encouraged discussion, and he throttled the freedom of the press. And this policy of repression he carried out not only in Austria, but in 1819 he persuaded Prussia to join with Austria in passing the Carlsbad decree for the whole German empire. This was a measure aimed to stifle all freedom of speech. Student societies where political matters were discussed were disbanded; professors were expelled for teaching radical ideas, and every newspaper, book, or pamphlet had to be censored by the government before it could be published.

When Prussia, Russia, and Austria met again in 1820, they decided, under Metternich's guidance, that it was their duty to intervene in the affairs of any country where the power of the sovereign was threatened and to assist him in putting down the revolution.

Their first action was to send an army to Naples to abolish the constitution, drive out the revolutionists, and strengthen the absolute position of the king of Naples. In the meantime there was a crisis in Spain, and they interfered again to maintain the power of the Spanish king against an uprising. Metternich even went so far as to threaten to use the power of these great aristocratic nations to crush the struggles for liberty of the South American colonies against Spain. This led to the famous Monroe Doctrine which declared against any European power interfering on American soil.

In these efforts to maintain the old régime, Metternich spent much of his life in traveling. He had his spies everywhere, for he had become the head of a vast international police system for crushing revolution wherever it showed its head. At every court where he went he was always the clever, the brilliant, the charming man of society. In 1824 the death of his wife caused his return to Austria. When, shortly after her death, he wearied of solitary life and sought a new companion, there was no lack of candidates. To the surprise of all, his choice fell upon a brilliant young artist who was not of noble birth. Metternich easily got around this difficulty by having her created a countess. This real love match, perhaps his only one, was destined soon to be broken, for she died a little over a year later.

The climax to Metternich's success in turning back

the tide of liberalism and restoring absolutism came in the crowning of the autocrat Charles X, emperor of France. From this time on Metternich's power declined. The long-gathering tide in France broke, and Charles was deposed in 1830. Metternich could hardly believe his ears. He was shocked. He saw the wall of absolutism that he had worked to build up crumbling away. He realized, too, that the fall of Charles X was stimulating liberals to new hopes and activities everywhere.

Fearing a radical or liberal succession in France, Metternich held out as a threat the pathetic little figure of Napoleon's son, whom Austria kept in a sort of gilded cage at Schönbrunn.

When Metternich saw Russia deserting his ranks and helping Greece to wrest her independence from Turkey in 1832, while England, France, and Germany looked on in approval, he realized that he was fighting a losing battle.

Metternich now married for a third time. The great personal attractiveness of the man is seen in the eagerness of the chosen lady to become his wife. The story is told that this young woman, Melanie Zichy, wanted to marry Metternich earlier and that he had married the young artist partly to avoid this union. Scorned by Metternich, Melanie at once became engaged to a baron of the court. When Metternich's young wife died a year later, Melanie promptly broke off the engagement and this time succeeded in winning



METTERNICH

Metternich. They often had little quarrels, and Metternich in his polite but imperious way usually got the better of her. At one time, however, she outwitted the diplomat. He had insisted that she dance at a coming ball, but she for some reason did not wish to do so. She agreed; but when the night of the ball came, she wore a dress so very heavy that dancing was out of the question.

While Metternich was leading his double life of play and politics, another eruption of the volcano of republicanism occurred. France in 1848 set up a second republic. Italy also, under the influence of Maz-

zini and the young Italians, was beginning to glow with the spirit of the times. Hungary, led on by Kossuth, was rising against Austria.

The final blow fell at Vienna when students rushed in a mass to the hall where the diet was in session. Crowds gathered and encouraged them to invade the building. The mob increased and a general riot ensued. Within the imperial palace a white-haired old man heard again and again, "Down with Metternich!" His rule was at an end.

The relief was so great to the common people, whose foe he had ever been, that they were unable to take quietly the report of his resignation. They set fire to his palace and would have made an end of him if he had not wisely slipped into the rear door of a friend's house.

"The fall of Metternich was the most astounding news since Waterloo."

Metternich and his family left Austria secretly in a strange manner. Their coach was placed on a truck at the rear of a train and the blinds drawn to give it the appearance of being unoccupied. Passing as English, they made their way first to Holland and then to England. Here Metternich was heartily welcomed by his old friend, the Duke of Wellington, and he used to meet and talk with that other exile, Louis Philippe, deposed king of France.

Once in this busy country, Metternich was able to finish his life in more or less quiet. He was soon

forgotten. His health began to fail as he bitterly watched the ever-increasing sweep of republicanism and the complete destruction of his ideals. He died on June 11, 1859. Although his death was almost unnoticed in his own country, many illustrious mourners attended his funeral, which was accompanied by the splendor to which he had been accustomed.

For over threescore years he has lain undisturbed in his family vault at Plasse, Bohemia. In the meantime the cry "Liberty or Death!" has led the world onward until many a royal despot has been forced to leave his throne. If Prince Metternich could have heard the tramp of the American troops, the symbol of the triumph of the people over autocracy as they marched into Coblenz, the city of his birth, he would have turned over in his grave.

LOUIS KOSSUTH

1802-1894

LOUIS KOSSUTH was born in 1802 in the ancient kingdom of Hungary, then ruled by the Austrian Hapsburg emperor. He came of a family of poor nobles, one with apparently more of nobility about it than the empty word, for seventeen of that name had been executed for too much love of liberty. He was trained as a lawyer, and at thirty entered the governing body of Hungary, the diet, a zealous patriot, eager to free his people from oppression.

His position here was such that he had a voice but not a vote. His first exploit was boldly to publish the proceedings of the diet. This was not pleasant for the proud, tyrannical nobles who controlled the government. They speedily discovered a law against "printing and publishing" such proceedings, whereupon Kossuth lithographed his reports. When this also was forbidden, he hired secretaries and had them written out by hand. There was no law against this, but Austria controlled the post offices, and he had to circulate the reports through local authorities. At first he merely recorded what occurred, but presently he added pointed comments of his own. It is no crime in America to edit a newspaper containing articles criti-

cizing officials, but an autocracy where the supreme power was Metternich would permit no criticism. He was thrown into prison in 1837 and tried a year or more later. It was due only to certain murmurings in Hungary that he was tried at all.

There was no doubt that Louis Kossuth was innocent of treason; but although he defended himself ably, he was found guilty. He was sentenced to four years in prison — which sounds like as light a punishment as one could expect; but four years in a Hungarian prison of that date was likely to be a life sentence. At first he was not allowed to read or write. Later the authorities relented and said he might read any books having no political bearing. The literature he chose was not so politically useless as they may have thought. He asked for an English grammar, an English dictionary, and a volume of Shakespeare.

Louis Kossuth's method of learning a language was typical of him, though hardly to be recommended unless one has four vacant years ahead and all of Kossuth's persistence. He read the volume of Shakespeare with aid of the grammar and the dictionary, trying to understand every word and phrase perfectly. He said it took him a fortnight to finish the first page. But he achieved a command of English that some, who are native Americans, might envy.

In 1840 Austria, having called for troops and had them refused her, found it necessary to make some concessions to Hungary. Certain political prisoners

were released, Kossuth among them. Austria may have hoped that after three years in prison he would not be able to recover his health. But he did; and shortly after his marriage in 1841 went back to his old work, editing a newspaper and making speeches in which he demanded Hungarian rights with passionate, fiery eloquence. His opponents knew enough not to imprison him again, and they started a rival paper. But even if they had had such a writer as Kossuth, he could not have made Hungarian wrongs seem right.

In 1848 Europe was aroused by the news that France had cast off the rule of Louis Philippe, and established the Second Republic. Kossuth seized the moment for an "Address to the Throne," with which the throne itself sympathized quite as much as the emperor who sat on it. But the students in Vienna rose up and Metternich fell.

Two days afterward the Hungarian diet, aroused by the fiery zeal of Kossuth, dispatched a delegation to the Austrian emperor demanding ministers under control of the people, freedom of the press, and trial by jury. Then, led on by the energetic Kossuth, they transformed Hungary from a semi-feudal to a modern state, sweeping away old offices by which the emperor had ruled them, establishing a representative government and emancipating the peasants from the tyrannical feudal lords. The weak Ferdinand I of Austria, with half his kingdom in revolt against him, took an oath to uphold the new Hungarian government.

*Doney & Gollman*

LOUIS KOSSUTH

But the powers of reaction in Austria were too strong to permit the permanent triumph of liberalism.

A second Metternich, the reactionary Schwarzenburg, took command of the Austrian government, and Ferdinand abdicated in favor of his young and illiberal nephew, Francis Joseph. He immediately abolished the new democratic government of Hungary, saying that he did not have to keep the promises of his predecessor.

Infuriated by such treachery, Hungary renounced all allegiance to the Austrian emperor and declared itself an independent nation. A strong leader was needed to take charge of the new government. Who could fill the position but Louis Kossuth?

At once Francis Joseph sent troops to stamp out the revolt. Kossuth was not himself a military leader, but he made the war that followed a brilliant campaign. At his eloquence an army arose as though he had planted the dragon's teeth of the ancient legend. Some great men have surrounded themselves with inferiors, tolerating no rivals. Kossuth was never afraid to use all the brilliant generals and able ministers he could find. At one time England and America were almost ready to recognize his government, and Austria had to call for the aid of another autocracy, Russia. How could one country, fighting for freedom, hold her own against two of the great powers of Europe?

Kossuth's armies were overwhelmed, and the kingdom of Hungary once more bowed in submission to the House of Hapsburg. Hundreds of the rebels were now shot or hanged; many were driven into exile. Kossuth and his followers fled into Turkey. It is stated that at this time he was offered the funds of the treasury of Hungary to keep them from enriching the enemy. He refused.

The Sultan received the fugitives generously. Russia and Austria demanded them back. The Turks suggested that the Hungarians turn Mohammedans to save

themselves. It is needless to say what was Kossuth's reply to that. Other countries seemed likely to take a hand. Webster, speaking for America, threatened Russia if Kossuth were executed. He was kept in Asia Minor, but as a nominal prisoner. His children had been imprisoned; his wife had wandered for months disguised as a peasant. They were sent to him in Asia Minor.

Now at last the United States did take a hand. A warship was sent to bring the refugees to America. Austria hanged Kossuth in effigy the day he left, but was really glad to get rid of him. The former governor of Hungary, however, showed no intention of settling down like an ordinary immigrant. He found use for the language he had learned in prison. In both England and America he made brilliant speeches in behalf of Hungary. Clay and Webster welcomed him to America; Whittier and Lowell wrote poems about him; he was received with popular sympathy. If he had been a South American, fighting for the liberation of some tribe in the Andes, he might have received the aid he wanted. But his country was in Central Europe, and any allegiance there would have meant a foreign entanglement. Besides, there was something inappropriate in America's trying to reform Europe just then. Before he tried to declare his country independent, Kossuth had freed the serfs, but America had not yet freed her own slaves. So the "Hungarian Whirlwind" found popular applause a

different thing from governmental action. He traveled the country, speaking for open diplomacy — not yet arrived at — in praise of the common soldiers of his army, the “unnamed demigods,” as he called them, and always for Hungary. He had glorious dreams of Europe freed and united — visions perhaps as far from us as from Kossuth.

When it was clear that there was no hope, he went to Italy to live. Italy had her own struggle for unity and freedom. In this Kossuth coöperated with her leaders, bringing Hungarians to Italy to fight for her cause. One reason for the defeat in which Austria lost Lombardy was the help given the Italians by the Hungarians. Austria meanwhile had gone back to her old policy of making Hungary submissive and miserable. She succeeded quite well in the attempt. She kept only such of Kossuth's reforms as she could contrive to turn into hardships and proceeded to make all equal by equal oppression.

When, in 1866, Francis Joseph, to gain the support of Hungary against Prussia, agreed to the compromise which partly restored Hungary's historic rights as a nation on the establishment of the Dual Monarchy, Kossuth did not return. He had once spoken of Francis Joseph as “that young Nero,” and while Nero reigned he would not come back to dance to his fiddling. Hungary had declared herself independent — in his mind she was independent — but he believed in no compromise surrendering any of her rights, and so,

while one of his former followers led Hungary, Kossuth lived a life of seclusion in Italy. He died in 1894, mourned by his country, after more than forty years of exile and of failure.

The results of Louis Kossuth's work are hard to find. Some men die young, their souls go marching on, and their work is done. Here was a man who lived for forty years after his hopes should have been realized and died without seeing them fulfilled. But it was he who roused Hungary and gave her a taste of freedom, after which willing submission to Austria became impossible. It was less than twenty-five years after his death that the Peace Conference of 1918 gave Hungary her coveted independence.

Kossuth's name belongs forever to the history of the struggle for constitutional liberty.

SAN MARTIN and BOLIVAR

1778-1850

1783-1830

ONE man only stands out as the great military genius in the War for our Independence — George Washington. South America had two George Washingtons — two military chieftains who won the independence of their country from Spanish tyranny, San Martin in the south and Bolivar in the north.

José de San Martin was born in a small Argentine town on the Uruguay River in February of the same winter that Washington and his soldiers were suffering at Valley Forge. It was but natural that José, whose father was a captain in the Spanish army, should be sent to Madrid as a boy to receive military training. Before he was twelve years old he was serving as a cadet in a Spanish regiment, and at the age of thirteen he was fighting in Africa against the Moors, the ancient enemies of Spain. He was in almost constant military service in Europe from that time on, and as Captain San Martin, fighting for Spain in her struggle to rid herself from the power of Napoleon, he was honored and promoted to lieutenant colonel.

During these years he learned to despise autocracy in any form, even that of Spain, and it gradually dawned upon him that good government would best

*Arturo Michelena*

MIRANDA IN JAIL

In the National Museum, Caracas, Venezuela

come from self-government. It was this conviction that made him long to return to his own country in South America to help her in her struggle for freedom against Spanish tyranny.

He was also strongly under the influence of Miranda, a South American who was organizing, all over Europe, secret societies to work for political independence in South America. San Martín was early initiated into one of these societies and took a solemn oath to consecrate himself to the cause of liberty for the Spanish colonists.

Ever since Spain had first seized her vast regions in Mexico, Central America, and South America, she had looked upon them as lands to be used for the benefit of

the people who remained at home and not for the welfare of the bold pioneers who endured all the hardships connected with building up a civilization out of the wilderness. One of the Spaniards in these early days went so far as to write in his diary that the sole purpose for which the South Americans existed was to procure precious metals for Spain; and if the wild horses and cattle overrunning the country could have been trained to perform this service, the inhabitants could have been dispensed with and then Spain would have a perfect colonial system.

Caring only for the wealth which she drew for her colonists, Spain ruled them most tyrannically, excluding them completely from the government and forbidding them to trade with any country except herself. While Spain was struggling against Napoleon, however, the colonists enjoyed a brief taste of freedom. They governed themselves, and for the first time engaged in very prosperous trade with the markets of the world. By the time Spain was able again to give her attention to America and tried to resume her oppression, she found her colonists, from the Strait of Magellan to our southern border, prepared to free themselves forever from her tyranny.

At this time San Martin returned to the country of his birth and offered her his services in her war for independence. By his military genius he soon won the freedom of Argentina and then, through his statesmanship, transformed the colony into a republic.



JOSÉ DE SAN MARTIN
(Argentina)

San Martín then assumed the task of fighting for the independence of Upper Peru, still in the control of Spanish officials. He decided, however, that it would be folly to proceed northward, leaving a Spanish power in the south in Chili. Working with another enthusiast, O'Higgins, he pushed westward through Argentina to the great snow-clad peaks of the Andes, which rise as a mighty barrier between the wide plains



STATUE OF SIMON BOLIVAR PRESENTED
TO AMERICA BY VENEZUELA

of Argentina and the valleys of Chili.

“What spoils my sleep is not the strength of the enemy,” said San Martin, “but how to pass those immense mountains.” But he did cross them with four thousand men and heavy artillery, and in doing so performed a feat more amazing than the crossing of the Alps by either Hannibal or Napoleon. Mounting all his troops on mules, he led them hundreds of miles over barren regions and through dangerous mountain passes. The cold was intense and the air so rarefied at those dizzy heights that many, unable to breathe in it, dropped from the ranks. This passage

of the Andes has been called the turning point in the contest between Spain and her colonies.

After conquering the Spanish armies in Chili and providing a government for the new state, with O'Higgins in charge, San Martin proceeded with his army northward, by boat, to free Peru from Spanish authority. For a time he was successful in all except Upper Peru. It was here that he met Bolivar, who had been earnestly working for South American freedom in the north.

San Martin greatly admired the military prowess and the statesmanship of his rival, but he knew well that Bolivar, who was very ambitious and vain, could work with no man his equal. It was Bolivar's ambition to unite all of South America into a great republic such as ours with himself as president. Believing Bolivar equal to this great task, and fearing that all that democracy had gained in South America would be lost should these two great leaders quarrel and turn their arms against each other, San Martin thought it best, for his beloved South America, to leave the field to Bolivar alone.

For ten long years San Martin had fought for freedom for its own sake. Other men had been selected governors of the republics he had established, although the honors might have been his. Now he made the greatest sacrifice of his personal interests for that of his cause and, resigning from the army, he returned to Europe, where he lived for the rest of

his life, cherishing the hope of a great and free republic of South America.

The man in whose hands San Martin left the fate of South America, Simon Bolivar, now known as the "Great Liberator," was born in Venezuela in 1783, the year in which the treaty closing our revolution was ratified. Like San Martin, he went as a boy to Spain for his education. When he was a little older he traveled extensively in Europe. In France he witnessed some of the closing scenes of the French revolution, and on one occasion met Napoleon.

Returning to Madrid, Simon, then a wealthy, idle, and rather unruly youth, fell in love with and married a young girl of fifteen. Together they came to his large estates in Venezuela, where she lived only a few months. Simon, just nineteen years old, and overwhelmed with sorrow, returned to Europe. While in Paris he again met his former idol, Napoleon, who was by this time emperor.

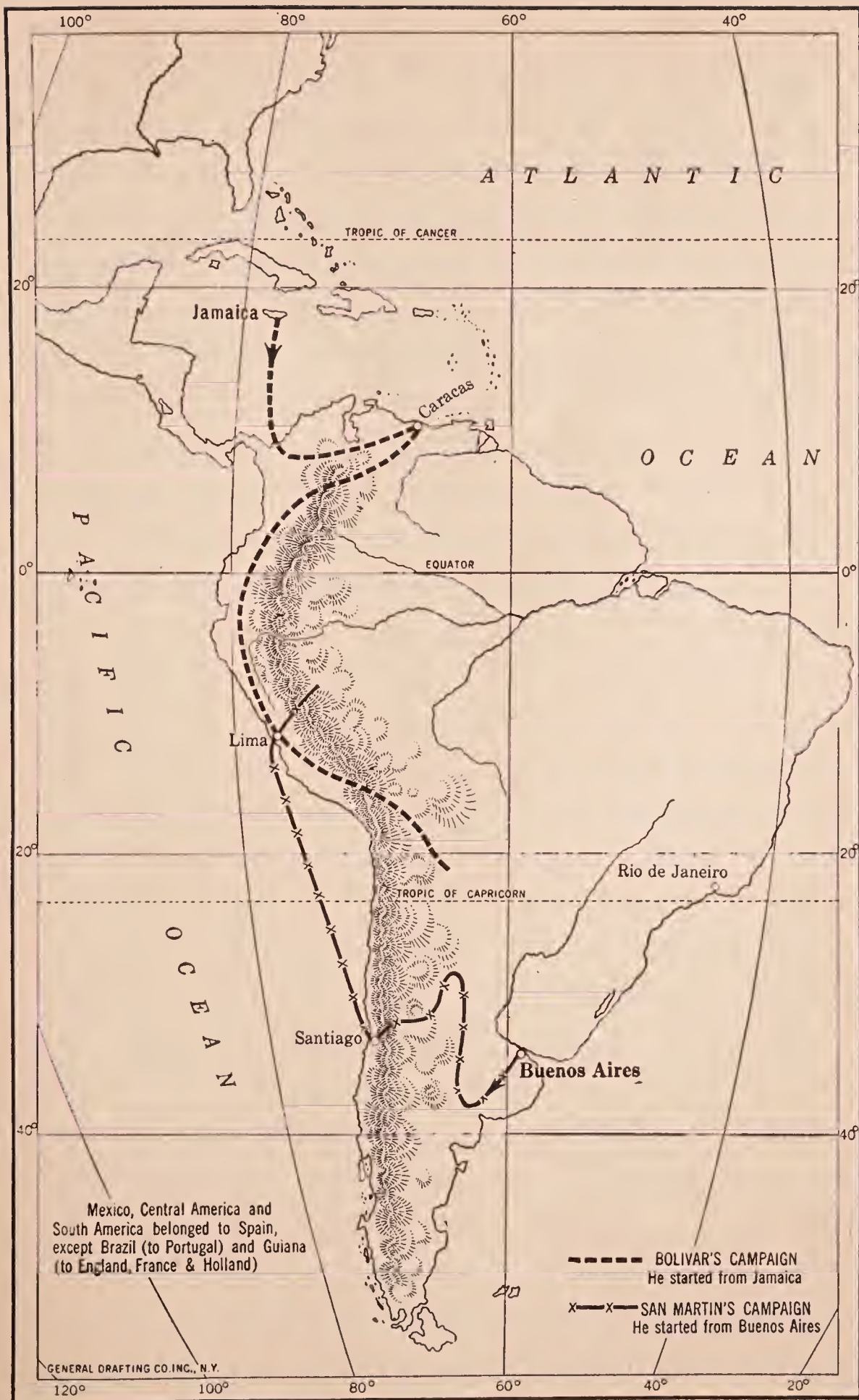
Bolivar now despised Napoleon, who had converted the republic, for which the French people had fought, into an absolute monarchy. It was soon after this meeting that Bolivar decided that he would one day lead the people of his native land in South America in a fight against Spain for the purpose of establishing Venezuela as an independent republic.

Returning to South America by way of the United States, Bolivar took advantage of an opportunity of observing the workings of a democracy. After two

years of fighting under Miranda, in Venezuela, Bolivar had the joy of seeing his own country declared a republic. But his happiness was short-lived, for Miranda, though an ardent patriot and idealist, was not a powerful military leader, and after three years Spain had reconquered Venezuela and Bolivar was forced to leave for Jamaica.

When he again returned to South America two years later, he went to Colombia, and placing himself at the head of the revolutionary forces succeeded in a short time in destroying all Spanish authority there. With the resources of that country to draw upon, he carried on a rebellious war with the Spanish autocrats who still controlled Venezuela until, in the year 1821, he succeeded in driving out the Spanish and giving freedom to his native land. He then united the two countries under his control into a single republic, called Colombia, with himself as president. In another year he had driven the Spaniards from Ecuador and joined that province to his new republic, which he now named Greater Colombia.

Meanwhile the absolute monarchs in Europe were viewing with alarm the revolutionary exploits of San Martin and Bolivar and the loss of these vast lands by a brother monarch, the king of Spain. Fearing the effect on their own authority, as these new republics grew and thrived, the alliance of absolute monarchs, under Metternich's guidance, plotted to subjugate these South American states and bring them again under



Spain's despotic authority. At this England, fearing for her trade with South America, declared against such European interference in America, and President Monroe stated that "any attempt on their part (the European autocrats) to control or oppress the independent American governments would be looked upon as an unfriendly act toward the United States." This principle, enforced from that day on, saved the South American countries from the designs of these grasping European monarchs and has, indeed, made the Western Hemisphere "safe for democracy."

Bolivar, piling victory upon victory, now grew intoxicated with his own glory and, dreaming of a great, united South American republic, came to believe that he, and he alone, was the man capable of being exalted to the high position of its chief executive. Building on the work of San Martin, who had by this time freed Argentina and Chili and had largely broken the power of Spain in Peru, he soon succeeded in winning independence for Upper Peru, which was then called Bolivia in honor of its liberator.

These great achievements by Bolivar were watched with eager interest in this country and also in Europe, and were applauded by men who believed in democratic government. Daniel Webster spoke of him in flattering terms; Kosciuszko sent his nephew to fight in his army; Lord Byron named his yacht *Bolivar* in his honor; and Lafayette wrote him a letter expressing his great admiration for the work he was doing.

Soon after his success in Upper Peru, however, his health began to fail; the hardships connected with many years of warfare were more than even his robust body and indomitable spirit could endure. He saw that, although Spanish authority in South America had been destroyed, he was never to realize his dream of a great united South American republic. The difficulties were, as he believed, largely due to the character of the people who were "neither Europeans nor North Americans, but rather a compound of Africa and America." His hopeful spirit, however, never doubted that great things might come in time. "Neither we, nor the generation that is to succeed us, will see the splendor of the America we are founding."

During the last ten years of his life he was physically unable to protect himself from local political rivals jealous of his fame, and so he banished himself completely from public life.

"The 'Great Liberator' died at Santa Marta, abandoned and tragic, on a deserted Colombian coast, facing the sea, like Napoleon, at the age of forty-seven years, December 17, 1830."

GIUSEPPE GARIBALDI

1807-1882

GREAT men have sprung up from long lines of kings and nobles; great men have spent their early years in palaces; but some of the greatest men whom the world has ever known are those who were reared in humble cabins and by plain, honest parents. Italy's great national hero was one of these.

In a modest little white cottage by the seashore at Nice, Giuseppe Garibaldi was born on July 4, 1807. Giuseppe's father, who was a sea captain, was not able to give his boy a good education without some sacrifices on his own part. These he made readily; but Garibaldi, as a child, was frivolous and he did not make the best of his opportunities. He loved to play and entertain himself, and he was not at all studious. Thus it happened that he learned very little.

Garibaldi was always extremely tender-hearted. When he was only a very small boy he broke the leg of a little animal, and he was so depressed by the injury he had inflicted that he wept for hours in his room.

In later years he proudly stated that he had never missed an opportunity to help others even at the risk of his own life. When he was a young boy he hap-

pened to see, while out hunting with a friend, an old woman washing clothes beside a stream. She lost her balance and fell over the edge of the steep embankment into the water. Giuseppe, fully dressed and encumbered by his game bag, took a dangerous plunge into the water and succeeded in saving the woman's life. He was delighted by his success which gave him confidence to attempt greater deeds.

As Giuseppe grew older he wearied of the dull routine of his life. Nothing remarkable had happened in his childhood or youth; no changes, no excitement. The wild spirit in the boy rebelled at this, and he made the proposition to some of his classmates that they escape from the confinement of the schoolroom. It was no sooner said than done. They seized a boat, equipped it with the necessary provisions, and sailed away from Nice. A man who happened to see the boys told Giuseppe's father about it. A ship was sent at once after the young adventurers, who were brought back in deep mortification.

Although Giuseppe was not at all attentive in school, he was always desirous of learning anything about the Italian language and government. In this he was handicapped, because Nice was a border town and, therefore, greatly influenced by the French. When Garibaldi had grown to manhood his father took him to Rome. The first sight of this city stirred a great longing in the young man, which he hid away in his heart and made his greatest aim in life. He saw not



GARIBALDI

the Rome that then existed. He saw a glorified Rome, the capital of a strong and united Italy, freed from her oppressors.

From childhood up Garibaldi had been an ardent lover of Italy, and he had heard that plans were on foot to unite the many little Italian states into a strong nation and to expel Austria from the peninsula. Try as he might, he was unable to find out where or by whom the movement was being carried on. He

searched papers, books, and pamphlets, and he was overjoyed when he at last met a man who could tell him of the plans.

Mazzini, a prominent Italian revolutionist, had come to the conclusion that it was useless to waste Italy's strength by violent uprisings. He, therefore, organized an association called "Young Italy," which aimed to bring about the unification of Italy through the education of the young men in lofty republican principles.

Garibaldi joined this band and eagerly drank in all of its teachings. Later he took an active part in all the Italian uprisings and was so bold that he was caught and sentenced to death. The adventurous young man was by no means ready to end his career. He escaped to South America, where he became interested in the political struggles there.

For ten years Garibaldi fought in South America in the interest of the people. He was always ready for any uprising which might bring about liberty.

While in South America Garibaldi found himself melancholy and lonesome. He felt that he needed true companionship and determined to get married. He went on deck and searched with his telescope the small town near which his ship was anchored. When he found a beautiful woman he at once set about winning her. That evening he left the ship and went as a guest to her home. When the two were introduced, Garibaldi said boldly, "You should be mine!"

The girl, Anita, raised no objection, and they were married immediately. Anita proved a faithful companion to Garibaldi, and she accompanied him on his return to Italy. During an unsuccessful campaign against the Austrians, Anita donned the soldiers' uniform and rode close beside her husband. In the flight from the Austrians, however, Anita fell ill and died.

Broken-hearted at the death of his beloved wife and pursued on every side by the Austrians, Garibaldi left Italy and sailed for New York. For a few years he worked as a candle-maker on Staten Island, and in that time he accumulated a small fortune. This enabled him, on his return to Italy, to purchase the tiny island of Caprera, where he established his permanent home.

In 1859, when Victor Emmanuel, the energetic and democratic king of Sardinia, attacked Austria, Garibaldi, serving in his army, achieved a glorious victory over the Austrians. As a result of this successful campaign, all the northern provinces of Italy, except Venetia, united with Sardinia. Garibaldi accepted a seat in the Sardinian parliament, and for some years assisted in making laws for that state.

The movement of binding Italy into one nation, however, was progressing too slowly for this ardent revolutionist. He determined to take upon himself the responsibility of compelling the small kingdoms of the south to unite under the crown of Victor Emmanuel. In May, 1860, Garibaldi gathered his famous



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STATUE OF GARIBALDI, ITALY

"Thousand Red Shirts," as his followers were called from their rough costume, and sailed from Genoa for Sicily, where he gained an easy victory. In the name of Victor Emmanuel he made himself Dictator of Sicily.

Then, crossing over to the mainland, he entered Naples, and, meeting but slight opposition, wrested that kingdom from the autocratic king of Naples and, uniting it with Sicily, ceremoniously presented the crown of these combined nations to Victor Emmanuel. Then Garibaldi and Victor Emmanuel rode side by side through the streets of Naples between lines of cheering people. Victor Emmanuel, inspired by Garibaldi's boldness, continued the struggle for a united Italy until Venice and Rome were under his liberal constitution.

For many years Garibaldi had fought against rheumatism. He called it his "enemy," and constantly warded it off by violent physical exercise. He would jump from rock to rock along the seashore until he was thoroughly tired; then, mounting a horse, he would ride hard for hours.

Upon his retirement to Caprera, however, he was too old to continue this physical exercise, and the affliction grew steadily worse. The last few years of Garibaldi's life were spent in intense pain and bitter poverty. In 1882, at the age of seventy-five, he died at his island home.

But the "Great Liberator's" ambition had been

achieved. Austria had withdrawn her hated claims upon his country; the numerous small kingdoms were welded into one strong, compact nation, and Rome, the famous city of old, was the capital of this new Italy.

OTTO VON BISMARCK

1815-1904

As far back as the fifteenth century, the Bismarck family had lived in the beautiful manor house at Schönhausen, in Prussian Saxony. When the French under Napoleon invaded Prussia and the troops entered Schönhausen, Ferdinand Bismarck and his young wife fled for safety to a neighboring swamp, where they were forced to remain in hiding until dawn. When they returned next morning they found that the French soldiers had stripped their home of all its beautiful possessions collected through centuries of patient industry. That which hurt more than anything else was that the invaders had cut into shreds the genealogical tree, of the proud and ancient Bismarck family, that hung upon the walls of their home. It was as if the soldiers had a presentiment that a son of this family would one day wreak vengeance upon them, for it was in this house about nine years later, on April 1, 1815, that young Otto was born, who was destined later to wipe out this deadly insult to his family name.

Otto grew up in a family famous for many generations in war and diplomacy. His people were "Junkers," that is, conservative landowners who hated liberal ideas and assumed a naturally imperious atti-

tude toward all inferiors. Otto's mother devoted herself to her son's early education but later placed him in the Plamann Academy in Wilhelmstrasse. Here he was at first homesick, disgusted by the severe rules, and exceedingly stubborn. He soon became accustomed to the discipline, however, and grew interested in the work. He was fond of geography, and he mastered the art of fencing. He stayed in the Plamann Institute for about five years; and then, at Easter time, he went to the Frederick William Gymnasium in Berlin to continue his studies.

As Otto grew older, he became more and more unruly. He showed a strong tendency to overstep all boundaries and regulations. However, he was graduated with honors from the school in Berlin.

In 1832 Otto began the study of law at the University of Göttingen. His student life was much like that of others of his kind, a life of drinking and fighting which left scant time for studying. All of his quarrels were settled by duels in spite of the fact that at the time of his entrance to the university he was obliged to sign an agreement not to drink beer or fight a duel. Bismarck's share of duels was twenty-eight, all ending happily for him except one, of which he bore a lifetime scar on his left cheek.

The students had a social club called the Hannoverana. In 1833 Otto made a wager with one of the boys in the club that in twenty years Germany would be united. The loser agreed to pay twenty-five bottles

of champagne to the winner. As Germany was not united in 1853, Bismarck had to pay the champagne. It is remarkable, however, that even at such an early date he had a presentiment of that unification which to-day is an accomplished fact.

When Bismarck was a little more than thirty years old and had taken for some time an active part in local affairs, he was appointed to a position in which he was responsible for the care of the dykes. At a wedding in Pomerania, he became acquainted with the daughter of Herr von Pattkamer of Reinfeld, and the resolute, imperious young man was strongly attracted by the gentle and very lovely Johanna. He won her love in spite of the opposition of her parents and married her in 1847.

In the same year Bismarck was chosen as the representative of the Lower nobility of his district in the Prussian parliament which was at that time summoned to Berlin. From then on, this haughty nobleman, lover of autocracy and militarism, received one political promotion after another until he reached the very height of power.

Just at the time that Bismarck entered parliament, the liberals in Prussia, inspired by the latest French revolution, were demanding a constitution. To this Bismarck, utterly contemptuous of the rights of the people, was bitterly opposed. The king, however, dared not refuse the clamoring mobs. He compromised by giving them a constitution which left most of the



KING WILLIAM OF PRUSSIA PROCLAIMED GERMAN EMPEROR, 1871

Werner

power to him and the military and wealthy classes represented in the upper house of the parliament.

Shortly after the new king, William I, came to the throne he and Bismarck joined forces to carry out their one chief ambition — that of unifying all Germany under Prussia and making it dominate Europe. In order to achieve this they knew that they must have a huge army. When a bill to increase the army and to double the years of service required of each young man was introduced into parliament, the lower house, which represented the people, hated Bismarck, and disapproved of the king's military plans, refused to vote the money. All the newspapers came out against the heavy tax this large army would require. The upper house agreed to the king's demands. The lower house steadily refused. Then Bismarck, on his own authority, decided that, since there was a deadlock between the two houses, the king had a right to use his absolute power to carry out his schemes. This angered the people, who felt that Bismarck was robbing them of their constitutional rights which they had gained and was forcing them back again into a return to absolutism. He was opposed on every side. His unpopularity was further increased by a speech in which he said, "The German question cannot be settled by anything except blood and iron." In spite of all opposition, however, Bismarck, fired by the ancient Hohenzollern spirit, established the greatest military system of Europe.

Bismarck had long desired to increase Prussia by annexing the province of Schleswig-Holstein, belonging to Denmark but largely inhabited by German people. He now persuaded Austria to help take these lands from Denmark, and they easily defeated the small Danish army. As soon as these provinces had been seized, the crafty Bismarck found an excuse for quarreling with Austria over their disposal and, backed by the powerful army he had organized, he defeated her in less than a month and ousted her from the union of German states, putting Prussia in her place as head of the North German Confederation.

Four years later Bismarck continued his policy of "blood and iron" in the great war with France. Hatred of the French had been born into Otto von Bismarck. The suffering of his family a few years before his birth, and the downtrodden state of Prussia when he first began to realize the conditions, had left a deep impression on his mind. He had once remarked:

"The French are savages; take away the cook, the tailor, and the hairdresser, and only the redskin will be left."

Many other Germans still harbored revengeful feelings against their old oppressor, France, while in France there were thousands who, recalling the days of their European domination under Napoleon, longed for renewed conquests. In both countries the war parties were trying to find an excuse for a conflict.

Bismarck, who was especially anxious to fight the French, so altered a telegram sent by Napoleon III to William as to make it appear that the French king had insulted the Prussian ruler. This trick worked; for the French, in anger at William's reply, declared war with Prussia in July, 1870. In seven weeks' time Bismarck's armies had defeated the French and taken their emperor prisoner. Four months later Paris fell before their siege and France signed an armistice. In the peace terms Prussia took Alsace-Lorraine from the French and laid upon the French people the heavy war penalty of a billion dollars. In this defeat and humiliation Bismarck was strengthening the bitterness of feeling between the two countries that was to break out again in the great war of 1914. As a result of this overwhelming victory, Prussia won over the support of all the South German as well as North German states and Bismarck's vision of a United Germany under Prussian domination was realized.

From this time on it was Bismarck's task to strengthen the empire by welding together all these German states in a firm national bond. Finding that the socialists, following the teachings of Karl Marx, were growing very powerful as a party, he used all his energies to defeat them. He succeeded in getting a law passed which prohibited them from meeting, discussing, or writing about any changes in the state, and this law remained in effect for twelve years. In the meantime he put into effect many of the reforms rec-

*Lenbach*

BISMARCK

commended by the socialists in order to win the workingmen to a belief that the state was striving for their good and that the absolute form of government was a better one than the democratic control urged by the socialists. He went back in this policy to the benevolent despotism of Frederick the Great, who was willing to do everything for his people except to give them self-government.

Having made Germany a powerful empire, Bismarck now turned to the idea of enriching her by

getting colonies. In a short time he succeeded in acquiring vast territory in Africa, and thus became a rival of the other countries of Europe in their scramble for land. In 1882 he made an alliance with Austria and Italy, known as the Triple Alliance, a friendship that had much to do with the outbreak of the World War.

Bismarck was growing old and grizzled in the service of the German empire, and tried several times to retire, but the emperor would always reply, "Never! ". Once the emperor, remonstrating against the decision of his old servant to retire, said: "Eh! What? You pretend to be fatigued, overworked, too old. Look at me! I am much older than you and I still ride horseback."

"No doubt, Sire; that is natural," replied Bismarck. "The rider always outlasts the mount."

When the new Emperor William II came to the throne in 1888, he wished to be an absolute monarch. He regarded the chancellor as meddlesome and old-fashioned. Bismarck, on his part, was disgusted with the young, inexperienced ruler. When he handed in his resignation it was accepted with a show of reluctance, although William II was relieved that the chancellor was out of his way.

The rest of the life of Germany's "iron chancellor" was spent in the privacy of his home. His wife died in 1894, and he himself in 1904 at the age of eighty-nine years.

QUEEN VICTORIA

1819-1901

THE Duke of Kent had had a presentiment that if he were ever to have a child, it would some day be sovereign of England. He determined, therefore, that his child should be English-born.

At that time, in the year 1818, the Duke of Kent, who was the fourth son of King George III, was living on the continent. His wife was a charming, though peculiar, German woman, the Princess Victoria Louisa of Saxe-Coburg. It was only in the year 1819 that the Duke and Duchess of Kent arrived in England, where they established a residence in Kensington Palace. There, on May 24, 1819, a little girl was born for whom the duke had high expectations.

The rest of the world paid little attention to the royal infant. There were other probable heirs to the throne and the chances of the little princess were very faint. Nevertheless, her father gave her a name worthy of the highest position she could attain — Alexandrina Victoria.

The Duke of Kent adored his “little Drina,” as the baby was called; unfortunately, he died before she had reached her second birthday.

At the death of the last possible heir to the throne



Sir George Hayter

THE PRINCESS VICTORIA AND HER FAVORITE DOG

the Princess Victoria was confidently regarded as the coming sovereign. The world began to take some interest in the little girl who was being so carefully trained in the nursery at Kensington. No whisper of these prophecies had as yet reached "little Drina." She played with her dolls or romped about the gardens; but she would not learn her letters. She would fly into a rage, stamp her little foot, and scream, "I will not! I will not!"

The wise German mother saw the truth of the situation immediately. Little Drina had been badly spoiled by the adoring servants and nurses. She remedied the condition by engaging as governess the Baroness Lehzen, a clever, kind woman, and yet very firm. From that time forth there was no trouble with the princess.

Victoria understood quite well her position as princess. When a little girl of her own age (six years) was brought to play with her, Victoria was offended by the familiar attitude with which the little visitor handled her toys. "You must not touch those," she quickly told her friend. "They are mine; and I may call you Jane, but you must not call me Victoria."

One morning the king, driving through the park in his phaeton, met the Duchess of Kent and her child. Strangely enough, this grouchy old man had taken a fancy to the little heiress. "Pop her in," were his orders, and off they drove to Virginia Water, where a band was playing. The king turned to his small niece:

“What is your favorite piece? The band will play it,” he said.

“‘God Save the King,’ sir,” was the instant reply.

The king was immensely flattered and thereupon decided that he had a very wise niece. This answer is an illustration of her tact for which she was afterward famous.

Not until her eleventh year was the princess told of the destiny that awaited her. The Baroness Lehzen broke the news; and the little girl, suddenly feeling a heavy, strange responsibility thrust upon her, slipped away by herself and cried over it.

The king, finding himself weakening, prayed that he might live until the Princess Victoria should become of age. A few months after her eighteenth birthday — the date of her legal majority — an attack of illness brought an end to his reign. This was in the early hours of the morning of June 20, 1837. When it was announced that all was over, the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Lord Chamberlain ordered a carriage and drove post-haste to Kensington. They arrived at the palace at five o’clock. The Duchess of Kent aroused her daughter from her sleep and told her that the Archbishop of Canterbury and Lord Conyngham were there and wished to see her. Clothed in a dressing gown and slippers, with her long, fair hair falling about her shoulders, this small, bewildered girl went alone into the room where the messengers were waiting to proclaim her Queen of England.

The queen took this new responsibility very seriously. She asked for no advice from her mother; in fact, she took some delight in breaking away from her mother's constant vigilance. The Duchess of Kent was forced to cease her domineering influence over her daughter; and the queen, with the advice of her prime minister, Lord Melbourne, and the other ministers of state, managed the business of governing quite smoothly and very wisely.

Victoria was practically a stranger to her subjects. Her mother had carefully hidden her from the public eye; and now that she had become Queen of England, the people were overwhelmed with curiosity. At her first Council, Victoria filled the whole gathering with admiration and astonishment; the Duke of Wellington, Sir Robert Peel, Croker, and Greville were among the notables who waited, impatient with curiosity, for her appearance. They saw, when the doors were thrown open, a slender, perfectly composed girl, drawn up to her full height of four feet eight inches, moving forward to her seat with great dignity. She was not beautiful, but her blue eyes were calm and unafraid.

This child — Queen of all England! And England was overjoyed. The people had been weary, worn out, and thoroughly disgusted with the selfish, ridiculous old kings who had preceded Victoria. Her accession was like the coming of spring after a cold and bitter winter. The thought of this innocent little girl, with fair hair and rosy cheeks, seated upon the throne

of England, filled the hearts of her subjects with loyal affection and enthusiasm.

England prospered under this new attitude of her people. The most flourishing ages in the history of England have been during the reigns of women, and it was prophesied that Victoria would prove herself to be "an Elizabeth without her tyranny, an Anne without her weakness."

Everything that was reported of the young queen made it seem more than likely that these hopes would be fulfilled. She had a keen mind, good judgment, and adapted herself to her new duties quickly and skillfully.

Our story now takes us to the court of King Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. King Leopold, who was Queen Victoria's uncle, had two sons, Ernest and Albert. It had long been planned by the parents of Albert and Victoria that some day the two should marry. When Albert was only three years old he had been told that he would one day marry "the little English Mayflower," and he grew up with a firm intention of doing so.

When Albert and Victoria were both seventeen, he visited her at Kensington. She was attracted by his beautiful physical appearance, and stated frankly in her diary that she loved "her dearest cousin Albert." When Victoria became queen, however, her views changed. She didn't want to marry Albert; in fact, she didn't want to marry any one. She was perfectly satisfied with her position, with the business of gov-

erning running smoothly, and Lord Melbourne to advise her.

When, however, Albert made a visit to England in the fall of 1839, Victoria forgot her determination not to marry, fell in love with him for the second time, and a few days after his arrival she asked him to marry her. The prince consented and returned to his home for a last visit before his marriage. A few months later he again came to England, and on the tenth of February, 1840, he and Victoria were married in the old Royal Chapel of St. James.

The young couple really loved each other, but nevertheless there were many conflicts of angry wills. Neither Victoria nor Albert was accustomed to play second fiddle and both were quick-tempered and very obstinate. In many cases their tastes were very different. Albert's simple home training had accustomed him to early hours, and the long-drawn-out court functions were so boring to him that he was often caught nodding when ten o'clock came. This did not fit in well with Victoria's energetic enthusiasm for amusement which often led her to dance through the night and even until sunrise.

Albert was rather easy-going in these early days; he thought it saved a great deal of trouble and worry just to let things slide. The duties of prince consort at first bored him and he hated politics. Very gradually in the course of time his attitude changed; he began to take more interest in politics and even con-



Sir Edwin Landseer

THE QUEEN, THE PRINCESS ROYAL, AND THE PRINCE OF WALES

sented to be present when Victoria interviewed her ministers.

As the years passed Victoria and Albert found their married life quite happy. Nine times the big guns, which proclaimed the birth of a royal infant, boomed out. First it was the Princess Victoria, then the Prince of Wales, and as the royal family grew the presence of the children drew the queen and the prince consort more closely together.

Albert's interest in politics grew daily, and accepting his great responsibilities as adviser to the queen, he devoted himself earnestly to the business of government. Studying, conferring, and directing, he and Victoria worked side by side. Years ago she had ceased "to dance throughout the night." She too became an early riser, but no matter how promptly she came to her desk, she usually found that Albert was already there and had prepared the papers for the day's work.

This happy, busy life in the English court was suddenly broken up by the death of the prince consort. This great calamity occurred when Victoria was forty-two years old, and, though she lived to be eighty-two, she always felt that her true life had ceased with her husband's. Over night "the merry Queen of England" became sad, quiet, and heavy-hearted. She turned faithfully to the work which demanded her attention, and in her close application to affairs of state there developed that tendency to dictate to others, to insist obstinately on her own way, and to fly into a

*F. X. Winterhalter*

THE PRINCE CONSORT — THE HUSBAND OF QUEEN VICTORIA

temper with those who opposed her. It was during these years that the reins of her government were largely in the hands of her two famous prime ministers, Gladstone and Disraeli. There is no doubt that the smooth-tongued Disraeli found more favor with the queen than the deeply respectful Gladstone, and that she was far more interested in the visions of Colonial Empire that Disraeli painted than the problems of internal reform that Gladstone urged.

When Victoria had reigned for fifty years there was



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THE QUEEN

Painting by H. Van Angeli

a magnificent "Diamond Jubilee" in England. This was one of the most splendid spectacles of modern times. To it came sovereigns of Europe — among them the German emperor, Victoria's grandson, and representatives of all the widely scattered dominions of England's great empire to pay homage to Victoria.

Meanwhile her family circle had enlarged, and in the midst of her children and grandchildren the ageing queen found a renewal of happiness. Her fits of irritability grew less frequent and the merry smile again brightened her features.

Nevertheless, Queen Victoria realized that she was weakening. Her eyesight failed, but she still attended diligently to her duties. There appeared no symptoms of a definite disease; the long, vigorous reign had exhausted her strength, and life was gently slipping away. She died on January 22, 1901.

A surge of grief swept over the country. The vast majority of her subjects could not remember a time when Victoria had not been reigning over them. Slowly the English people began to realize their loss — it was the death of a queen who had reigned for more than sixty years.

WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE

1809–1898

IN the roll of English statesmen there is probably no one more highly esteemed than William Ewart Gladstone. His long life of service in the English parliament was an incessant fight for reform, and all his efforts were stimulated by a noble and conscientious desire to do what his convictions told him was right. He was Victoria's greatest prime minister and the most remarkable orator of the nineteenth century.

William Gladstone was born in Liverpool on the twenty-ninth of December, 1809 — a very famous year in English and American history, for in this same year were born also Alfred Tennyson, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Edgar Allan Poe, and Abraham Lincoln. From his mother's side, Gladstone could claim that in his veins ran the blood of Henry III of England and Robert Bruce of Scotland. He himself never spoke of this royal lineage, but much preferred to be thought of as a representative of the middle class, for whose rights through life he so strongly contended. He was very proud, however, of his Scotch ancestry on both sides. The family name, traced back to 1296, was originally "Gledstanes," meaning *hawk's rock*, not an unfitting name for a man of Gladstone's rugged

strength. It was not until Gladstone was twenty-six years of age that his father changed the name to the one now so well known throughout the world.

Sir John, the father, was a great merchant prince of Liverpool, a member of parliament and a baronet. William was his fourth son. His father's training of his sons had much to do with William's skill as a debater. No opportunity was ever lost, in the family circle, to carry on an argument. Nothing was ever taken for granted; in every subject that came up for discussion each lad was put on his mettle to defend his case or to disprove the arguments of his opponents. They argued as to whether the fish should be boiled or fried; whether it would rain on the following day; whether a window should or should not be opened. This was all done in perfect good humor and must have been splendid preparation for later debates in the House of Commons.

When he was eleven, William entered Eton and worked hard as a student. He was an exceedingly steady boy and did not join any of the wild parties on which his fellow classmates went. Indeed, he earned a certain amount of unpopularity by his persistence at serious study. Eton, at that time, was famous chiefly for its teaching of languages and mathematics. Poor William had great difficulty in mathematics; addition and subtraction were his bugbears. No one who saw him struggling with his arithmetic in those days would have supposed that years later he

would become Chancellor of the Exchequer and the greatest financier in England.

At twenty-one William entered Oxford University, from which he was graduated with high honors. He was president of the Debating Union and had organized a new debating club, calling it "Weg," after his own initials.

After graduation his first inclination was to enter the church, but this his father refused to allow him to do. Gladstone was a strongly religious young man, and retained throughout his life a great interest in church history and church problems. In 1832, while on a visit to Italy, a country which he loved and later served so well, he was called home to become a candidate for a seat in the House of Commons. In spite of opposition he was elected. It is said that his personal appearance, as well as his speeches, had much to do with his success.

At this time he was a striking and handsome young man, physically strong, with splendid radiant eyes glowing out from under a mass of dark hair. There was not a dandy in the House who did not envy that "fine head of jet-black hair." During his first years in the House he was called "Handsome Gladstone." He was full of energy and could speak without fatigue for hours at a stretch, and, like Pitt and Napoleon, wasted but little time in sleep.

In the first parliament of Queen Victoria's reign there was a strong revival of the anti-slavery agitation,

*George Frederick Watts*

GLADSTONE

and Gladstone delivered a powerful speech for slavery. This debate, although on the unpopular side of the question, lifted him to the front rank of parliamentary orators. Gladstone was by birth, by education, and by all his early associations an aristocrat and a conservative. How he gradually developed more progressive ideas and closed his career as the great Liberal prime minister of England is an interesting story.

The following year he was ordered by his physicians

to Rome to rest and repair the injury to his eyes that had resulted from too much study by candle light. There he met and became engaged to Catherine Glynne, the daughter of Sir Stephen Glynne of Hawarden Castle. They were later married at this castle, a beautiful old seat in Flintshire, where they spent many happy years. Gladstone's kind, amiable, and hospitable nature attracted to them numerous friends. They had several children, two of whom were later members of the House of Commons.

When Gladstone had been in parliament a little over ten years he received the much coveted honor of representing Oxford in parliament. But in the midst of his political activities he was forced to take his family to Naples, because one of his children was ill and the doctors advised a southern climate. While there Gladstone learned that the king had exiled or imprisoned, without trial, a great number of the citizens of Naples. His sympathies were immediately stirred. He found pathetic and terrible conditions in the Italian prisons. On his return to England he exposed all these conditions in two published letters. These letters created a great stir, and, while nothing was done at that time, they bore fruit years later when Garibaldi and a free people marched into Naples and drove out the oppressors. Garibaldi himself declared that Gladstone's letters were "the first trumpet-call of Italian liberty."

Returning to parliament, Gladstone came into his first real conflict with a man whom he was to oppose

in public affairs for many years. Benjamin Disraeli, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, favored a new taxing law which he explained in his financial statement to the House of Commons. Mr. Gladstone made a brilliant and able speech against this bill, defeated it, and was given Disraeli's position as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Soon after this Gladstone's plan for reforms in taxation was adopted by the government. These reforms did much to equalize taxation — especially relieving the poor of excessive burdens. This was one of Gladstone's great achievements for England.

When our Civil War broke out Gladstone sided with the English upper class against the North. In 1862 he delivered a speech in which he said that Jefferson Davis "had made an army, had made a navy, and, more than that, had made a nation." Five years later he courageously admitted his mistake. "I must confess," he said, "that I was wrong. My sympathies were then as now with the American people. But I see now that there could be no strong nation unless the two sections were united."

As Gladstone grew older, he lost his aristocratic and conservative spirit and became more and more the understanding and sympathetic friend of the people. One of the things that aroused his interest in their behalf was his realization that, though England was supposed to be a representative country, only a few men could vote. It was in 1866 that he became really "The People's William." In that year he ceased to

be the representative of aristocratic Oxford and threw himself whole-heartedly into the support of a Reform Bill which was to extend the vote to four hundred thousand of the people. He said, "I take my stand upon the broad principle that the enfranchisement of capable citizens, be they few or be they many, — and if they be many, so much the better, — is an addition to the strength of the country." Disraeli, his opponent, taunted Gladstone with his earlier utterance against extension of suffrage, and in a brilliant attack defeated the measure. In the following year Disraeli brought in his Tory Reform Bill for suffrage and succeeded where Gladstone had failed. It is said, however, that this bill was so changed to meet the wishes of Gladstone that by the time it was passed there was nothing left of the original bill except the first word, "Whereas."

The years 1868–1874 under Gladstone's leadership as prime minister have been called "The Golden Age of Liberalism." It was during this period that Gladstone brought about his first great reforms for the Irish people in whose problems he was deeply interested. He saw the Irish people, many of them Catholics and many very poor, struggling under the burden of supporting the State Protestant Church, and he gave them relief by his famous "Irish Disestablishment Law." Another of the great injustices suffered by the Irish was in connection with the land. Most of the land in Ireland was owned by Englishmen living in England. The Irish peasants were at the mercy of these English

landlords who had the right to evict them without warning and take over the improvements they had made without paying for them. Such evictions were not infrequent and often caused the cruelest suffering. Gladstone's land reform did much to remedy these injustices.

Two other interesting reforms of this period were the establishment of a system of national education and of the secret ballot system in voting. The latter helped to put an end to the disgraceful bribery in elections and enabled the poor men to vote as they pleased without fear of punishment by some powerful person afterward. In 1884 Gladstone succeeded, by a new Reform Bill, in so extending the right to vote that England had practically universal manhood suffrage.

Having secured church and land reforms for the Irish, Gladstone turned, in later years, all his efforts toward securing for them a truly representative government of their own. This was the greatest interest of his old age. In 1886, when he was prime minister for the third time, he introduced his first Home Rule Bill for Ireland. This was passed by the House of Commons, but it was rejected by the Lords. A few years later he again made an effort to pass such a bill, and again it met the same fate. It was not until a quarter of a century later that Ireland achieved that which Gladstone gave so much of his life to bring about.

At the age of eighty-three Gladstone retired from

public service. But a few years later, when all England was stirred by the suffering of the Armenians who were being ill-treated by the Turks, the people recalled the sufferings of the Neapolitans and cried, "Oh, for an hour of Gladstone!" To this appeal Gladstone spoke in public for the last time at the age of eighty-seven.

On Gladstone's retirement Queen Victoria offered him an earldom. This he gratefully refused, preferring to remain known by the title of which he was most proud — "The Grand Old Man." He had served the public throughout his life with an eager desire to do the right thing at all times. Sometimes he took a wrong view of things, but he never acted except from the highest motives. He was born to wealth, luxury, and every opportunity of the aristocrats, and yet he spent his life trying, at the expense of his own class, to improve the conditions of the mass of people everywhere. "The rising hope of the stern and unbending Tories," when he first entered parliament, "he became the most daring, liberal innovator the century had seen."

BENJAMIN DISRAELI

Lord Beaconsfield

1804–1881

GLADSTONE's great political opponent in parliament for half a century was Benjamin Disraeli. No two men could be found more different in character and political ideals than these great statesmen who alternately held the reins of Queen Victoria's government for many years. Disraeli, who first entered parliament as a radical, soon became the staunchest of Tories and remained a conservative through all his long parliamentary career. In contrast to Gladstone's interest in home reforms, Disraeli thought England's greatness in the future depended upon her control of lands in all parts of the world.

Benjamin Disraeli was the descendant of a Hebrew family who were driven out of Spain by the Inquisition and took refuge in the Venetian territories, where they continued as merchants for four hundred years before going to England. Benjamin was born in 1804 or 1805, it is not known which, the second child of Isaac and Maria D'Israeli. He had an elder sister, Sarah; and two younger brothers, Ralph and James, who were later to be made deputy clerk of parliament and commissioner of inland revenue.

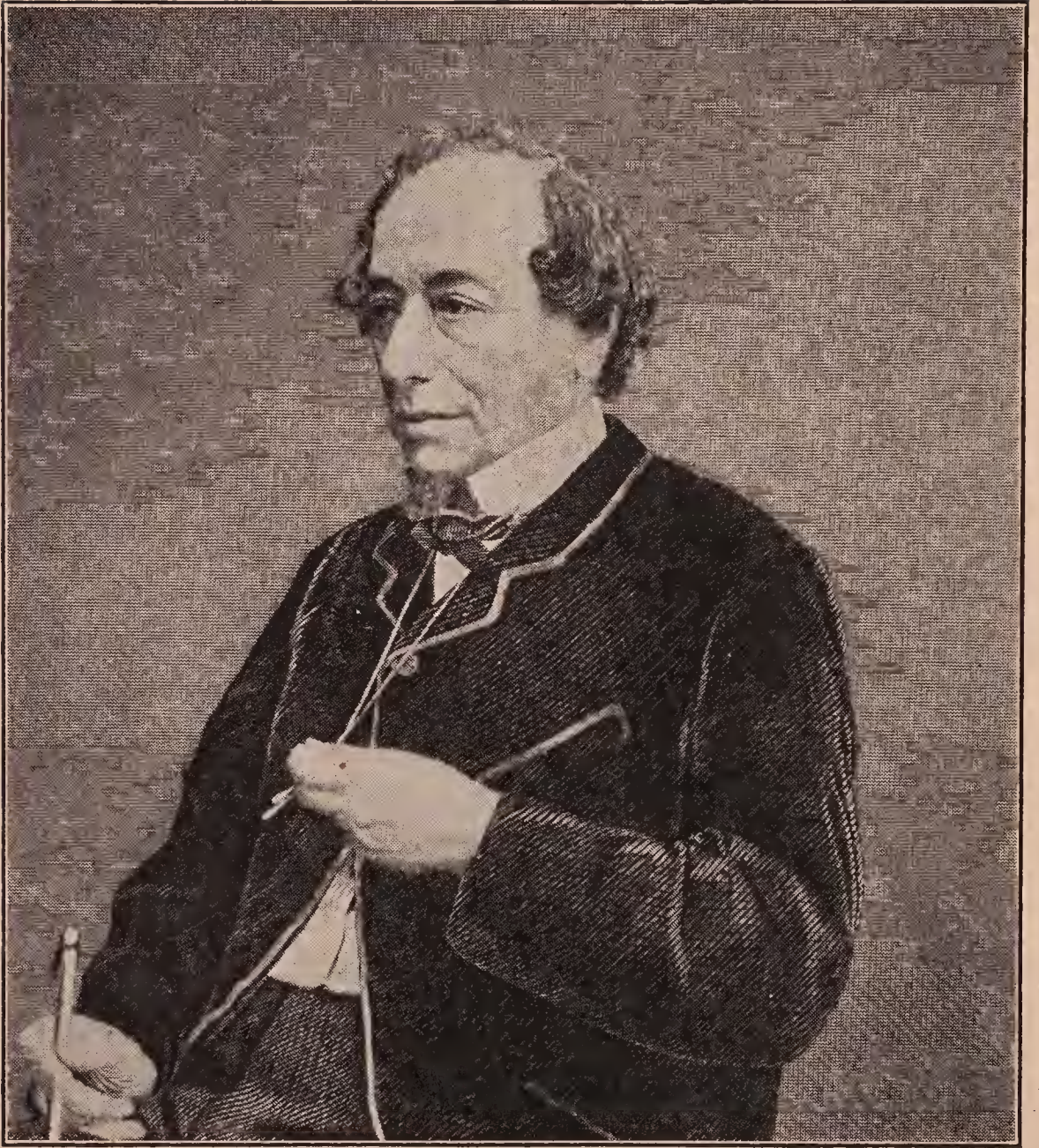
Although Benjamin was born a Jew, he did not remain a member of his ancestral faith, because a Mr. Rodgers, a poet, took a fancy to him and, anxious that his religion should not bar his success in life, had him baptized into the Christian Church.

When he was fifteen years old he was sent to the Unitarian school at Walthamstow. This was to be his first taste of school life, for up to this time he had been tutored by his father. His Jewish name and appearance instantly made him the butt of the school. Finally he turned on his tormentors and challenged the biggest boy in the school to single combat. The result of the fight was that from that time forth no one ever called "Old Clo's! Old Clo's!" within his hearing.

At an early age he became a prominent figure in London, where he met many distinguished characters, one of whom was Louis Napoleon.

Disraeli's "long raven locks, eyes bright with intelligence and vivacity, regular nose, lisping voice, effeminate air, kid gloves, black velvet dress-coat lined with white satin, and gold-handled cane outdandied even the leaders of that age of dandies." He liked to wear many gold chains, hung here and there on his vest, and he had peculiar semicircular wrinkles on each side of his mouth which gave him the look of a humorous actor.

When a young man of twenty-two years, he published his first novel, *Vivian Grey*, the most popular book of the season, which made him the "lion of the



DISRAELI (LORD BEACONSFIELD)

hour." For the next three years he traveled abroad, visiting many places of interest in Europe and the Levant. While he was in Jerusalem he tried to enter the Mosque of Omar at the risk of his life.

Up to this time he was wavering between a political and literary career. He was enjoying success as a novelist, and in his novels he often took pleasure in ridiculing the aristocracy. However, the events of 1832 brought these doubts to a close when the agitation for reform swept like a storm over the land and carried Disraeli with it. Upon the advice of a prominent politician who pointed out to him that all clever young men were going in for radicalism and that the party was sadly in need of brains, he joined the Radicals.

When in April, 1832, a vacancy arose in parliament, he put himself forward as a candidate from High Wycombe. On the thirteenth of June the candidates made their public entry into the town. Disraeli arrived in a carriage drawn by four white horses, accompanied by a crowd of admirers and escorted by a band. He blew kisses to the fairer sex who watched from windows. He also bowed, occasionally, to his friends.

In order to be heard and seen by all, he perched himself atop the Red Lion Inn, the chief hostelry of the town. He spoke for a full hour, attacking his political opponents with bitter and sarcastic words. The speech was delivered with energy and animation and accompanied with striking gestures. Although it was

effective, he was defeated by Colonel Grey. This, however, did not discourage him, and when parliament was dissolved in August, he decided to try again.

This time there were three candidates for two seats — a Lord Carrington, who was sure of a seat, Colonel Grey, and Disraeli. The Mr. Disraeli of the second election was very different from the Mr. Disraeli of the first. In the first he had been a fiery and uncompromising Radical; in the second he was willing to make friends with the Tories. He was again defeated, however, by Colonel Grey. But he was still unconquered. He showed in the hour of defeat the spirit of elastic self-confidence and steadiness of purpose, to which he owed a great deal of life's success. In 1837 he won his fight.

When he first took his seat in parliament he was jeered because of his peculiar appearance. He wore highly colored clothes and his speeches were very flowery. Disraeli had not been long in parliament before his views began to change, and he finally went over completely to the Tory party and remained conservative throughout his long career. His great ability in time won over the admiration of many who had formerly laughed at him.

When the old leader of the Conservatives in the House of Commons died, the bulk of the Tories fell under the leadership of Disraeli; for thirty years he dominated the Conservative party.

One of the questions on which Disraeli and Gladstone

took opposite sides was about the policy of taxing imports to England. Disraeli believed that unless a tax were put upon manufactured goods coming in from other countries, their low price would ruin the English manufacturers of similar goods, who would be unable to make and sell goods cheaply enough to compete with them. He declared Free Trade, untaxed importation, would mean the bankruptcy of England. Usually keen and far seeing, Disraeli was, in this case, wrong in his prophecies. Gladstone, in the face of his opposition, made Great Britain a free trade nation, and ten thousand factories sprang up and prosperity came to England such as she had never known before.

In 1852 Disraeli astonished all London by marrying Mrs. Wyndham Lewis, whose husband had not been dead for quite a year. After the marriage Disraeli no longer had any worries about election bills and debts, as his wife had an income of several thousand pounds a year.

During the many years that the Liberals were in power, Disraeli, as a member of the Opposition, used all his fund of wit and sarcasm to flout and heckle his opponents. Gladstone, who nearly always took things too seriously, was the frequent target of his quick and sometimes flippant retorts.

Disraeli, who had been the real leader of the Conservatives for many years, became its recognized head in 1866, when he was made prime minister. It was during his brief year in this position that he achieved

the remarkable feat of getting his aristocratic Tory party to pass the Reform Bill for the extension of the vote to the working class. Gladstone, who had introduced such a bill the year before, had been defeated. The people were angry and disappointed. By this time, owing to the growth of newspapers, railroads, and cheap postal rates, they were much better educated and informed than ever before. The increasing size of their labor organizations made them much more powerful. The news, coming just at this time, of the defeat of the aristocratic South in our Civil War, considered a great victory for the workingman, gave them additional courage. Public opinion became strong for the reform. There was continual rioting outside of parliament during the debates. The Tories, in alarm, introduced a new bill for reform. Disraeli was taunted for offering a measure which he had just opposed, but he was farseeing enough to realize that the demand for reform was too strong to be ignored. Reform must come, and he wanted to give the Conservative party the glory of winning it. To the protests of the Tories, who were alarmed at extending the right to vote to so many people, Disraeli replied that the main thing was to "dish the Whigs."

In its final form the bill was even more far-reaching than Gladstone's had been. It doubled the number of voters. From then on two thirds of the men of the country were voting, and parliament for the first time was under the control of the mass of the people.

Disraeli now very skillfully planned to unite, under the Conservative standards, the aristocrats and working people against the great middle class represented by the Liberals. His triumph, however, was short lived, for the next election showed that the majority of the people preferred Gladstone and the Liberal party as the real friends of the workingman. The Conservatives were defeated, and his old enemy, Gladstone, took his position as prime minister.

If he had wished, Disraeli now might have been knighted and retired to the House of Lords, but instead he prevailed upon Queen Victoria to confer a coronet upon his wife, who was on her deathbed. She lived four hours after receiving this honor. No act of his life ever gave him as great pride and pleasure as this one. After his wife's death, he remained in the House of Commons, where he could watch and criticize what was being done. For six years he sat in the House, without real political power, but assisting by his jeers and sarcastic jokes the gradual ebb of the Liberal popularity. Just before the final defeat of the Liberals, Disraeli described their ministers, as he looked at them sitting on the front bench in the House, as a "row of extinct volcanoes."

In 1874 Disraeli's party was once more victorious, and he again took the wheel. During this last term, as prime minister, he began to have visions of world rule for England. Ever since the time of Columbus and other Spanish and Portuguese explorers the great Euro-

pean powers had held colonies in foreign lands, but, up until now, they had not been considered of very great worth. As a French statesman said, "Colonies are like fruits which drop from the parent tree as soon as they are ripe." Gladstone was among those who held this opinion, and during his years in power he had taken no interest in colonial enterprise, much to the disgust of Disraeli, who contemptuously called him a "Little Englander." Now was Disraeli's opportunity to carry out his imperial ambitions for England.

He had strong support in this policy. The newly rich factory owners wanted more markets for their manufactured goods, sources of raw material for their factories, as well as new fields for investing their increasing wealth. As the spread of the Industrial Revolution had brought a similar growth in the industries of France and Germany, they also were looking abroad for colonies. Disraeli's new Conservative majority, fearing these rivals in trade, believed strongly in imperialism for England. He was sustained, also, by popular interest, which produced a music-hall ditty that furnished the name "Jingo" to the enthusiasm that began to prevail for foreign aggression.

On one occasion while fervently speaking in favor of further conquest for England, Disraeli held out the dazzling dream that England might gain untold lands. "We've got the ships; we've got the men; we've got the money, too!"

It was not long before he found an opportunity to

advance British imperialism. Soon after the great French engineer, De Lesseps, had completed the Suez Canal, Disraeli took advantage of the bankrupt khedive of Egypt and bought from him the controlling interest in the canal. This gave England control of the new gateway to her colonies in India and Australia. In 1876 he conferred on Queen Victoria the title of Empress of India, not only as a personal compliment, but as a proof of the vastness and importance of British possessions in Asia.

For many years England had feared that Russia, ambitious since the time of Peter the Great to seize Constantinople, would get down to the Mediterranean and menace England's possessions in India. In order to prevent this, she had made an alliance with Turkey, who held Constantinople. Now, the country was suddenly shocked by news of terrible atrocities committed by the Turks against their subjects in the Balkan Peninsula. Gladstone urged the English to break their "unholy" alliance with the Turk; but Disraeli, more interested in advancing England's trade than in preventing human suffering, refused. When Russia, glad of an opportunity to attack her ancient enemy, went to the rescue of the oppressed Turkish subjects and defeated the sultan, Disraeli saw to it that the Balkan territory that Turkey lost did not go to Russia but became largely independent.

He next turned to India and South Africa, where he carried on petty wars to advance England's possessions.

After these victories he was made Earl of Beaconsfield by the queen. When his party was finally defeated at the polls, he resigned as prime minister and henceforth took little interest in public affairs. He employed his leisure in writing *Endymion*, another novel, tracing the career of a successful politician. After a short illness he died in 1881. There is no doubt that he felt his own career a success. His personal ambition was achieved when he, a member of a despised race, had placed himself at the head of the great English government and had directed the course of her vast imperial enterprises.

DAVID LIVINGSTONE

1813-1873

FROM the land of hills and lakes where grows the thistle dear to its countrymen, to that wild though gorgeous jungle in the midst of the darkest and most dangerous part of Africa, went a young Scotchman, voluntarily giving up the comforts and conveniences of civilization to risk his life among savage Negroes who had never looked on the face of a white man.

David Livingstone, who was to accomplish this remarkable and courageous feat, spent his youth in a little known village on the river Clyde, Scotland. His family had no famous forbears and no ancestral traditions but one — they were people of honesty. Such was the reputation of the Livingstones. Always bearing up the honored tradition of the family, David Livingstone fought his way to an education despite many obstacles. In him were blended the unusual characteristics of both scientist and churchman. His knowledge of science was by no means easily gained, for he studied at night school after working hard all day in a cotton factory. By pinching and saving at last he managed to get together enough money to attend Glasgow University.

On becoming of age, the turning point arrived when Livingstone must decide on which of the many roads of life he would set out. Of a strong religious bent he was naturally attracted to the newly opened field of foreign missions. He applied to the London Missionary Society and studied for work in China. China had an enormous attraction for him, and the picture of millions of people needing his help and attention urged him on. Then came a time when the first practical application of his studies was made. He was to give a sermon in a little town in Essex. The result of this attempt was pathetically amusing. Slowly he gave out his text to the handful of parishioners; then, looking at his audience he attempted to begin his carefully prepared sermon, but suddenly that same speech had retreated into some remote recess of his brain and could not be recalled. After an embarrassing pause, he delivered a sermon very different from the one he had planned. All that the church goes in that particular chapel got that morning was this:

“Friends, I have forgotten all I had to say,” and he left the pulpit.

In spite of this rather bad beginning, Livingstone did gain the confidence of the London Missionary Society and was given a mission.

General disturbances in China had made going to that country impossible, but the dark mystery of an unexplored Africa appealed alike to his sympathies and imagination. Although lying almost in sight of Eu-

rope, Africa remained until the nineteenth century the "Dark Continent." Its vast mountain ranges on the coast, the dangerous rapids in its rivers, its dense forests, and unhealthy climate had prevented the bravest from venturing into the interior.

Livingstone, with his missionary zeal, his medical knowledge, and his keen interest in scientific exploration, found here a wonderful field for activity.

Immediately when he reached Capetown, he struck northward, going through the territory that an earlier missionary, Dr. Moffat, had already opened up. Following the maxim that when you are at Rome you must do as Rome does, he set out to learn the customs and speech of the natives, accomplishing his task so well that he succeeded in translating hymns into the native tongue. He laughed at this poetical attempt, but those same hymns were later adopted and printed by French missionaries.

Living among the savage tribes brought with it many a breath-taking experience. Once a lion attacked him and so badly mangled his left shoulder that he was permanently crippled. During four years he remained behind the barrier of a desert working among the savages. He had broken the loneliness of a bachelor's life in the wilds by marrying Mary Moffat, Dr. Moffat's daughter. The housekeeping those two managed to set up away from civilization was marvelous. Livingstone made all his own pots and pans, as well as everything else they needed, with a small hand forge



DAVID LIVINGSTONE

he carried with him. Since during his stay in Africa he built three houses, one can easily imagine how he felt when he wrote to his sister Janet in this fashion:

“Oh, Janet, know thou if thou art given to building castles in the air, that that is easy work compared to building cottages on the ground.”

With a group of faithful Negroes, Livingstone journeyed northward through the heart of the jungle. What he suffered there was far more than the endur-

ance of most white men could stand. He had not only to contend with hostile tribes, but was in constant danger from attack by the wild animals of the jungles. Besides these hardships and many others, he found the Dutch inhabitants his bitter enemies. Because he had done his best to prevent the slave traffic that they had been practicing he became a marked man. They sacked and burned the village where he lived. They incited attacks by the natives. They hindered him at every turn.

Disease did its worst to increase the trials and tribulations of this intrepid explorer. Fever racked him so that they just reached Loanda on the west coast of Africa in time to prevent his death. Livingstone was offered free passage on a boat to Capetown, likewise several other means of again reaching civilization, but he had promised to take his "boys" back to their home, and with him a promise was sacred. He gave up all the offers and journeyed back with his faithful followers, back into the land of hazards, consuming eleven months in reaching Linyanti, the place from which they had started. The Negroes in the region through which he passed had been so harassed and tortured by the Boers and the Portuguese that they were immediately on the defensive when Livingstone arrived, and he had to show his white skin to convince them that he was no Portuguese.

Always going farther, he pushed up the Zambezi River until one day he heard the pounding of heavy waters, and, following up the sound, he found himself

standing before one of Nature's most stupendous beauties. The great mass of water was descending in a tremendous torrent over a high precipice. Here he indulged in what he called "personal vanity," naming these cataracts "Victoria Falls" in honor of his sovereign.

Continuing his explorations he succeeded in crossing the entire continent from west to east — a great feat. As a result of this penetration into the heart of Africa, he was able to dispel the false idea that the interior was an uninhabited and sandy desert and to give a true picture of its fertile lands, countless tribes, and mighty rivers.

Twice during his African work he returned to England where fame awaited him, and he was overwhelmed with honors. The government, in gratitude for the land to which he gave it claim, showered gifts upon him. Under these changed conditions the temptation to remain in England was great; nevertheless back he went to his trusting natives who were overjoyed at his return. Much remained there for him yet to do, but tragedy after tragedy heaped up for him an almost unbearable burden of grief. His English friends in Africa — his father, his mother, a number of his unfortunate natives, many of whom had been enslaved, and finally his wife, Mary Moffat — passed away. Dread and almost unavoidable disease had done their work.

To add to this the Civil War broke out in America,

and the policy of England caused his recall. With an agonized heart Livingstone watched and hoped for the liberation of the slaves, his own son fighting on the Federal side. When he was later sent to India his whole being cried out against the horrible torture that the slaves suffered, for the native leaders in India still enslaved their captives, although England had abolished slavery about 1830. At one place, he relates: "We passed a woman tied by the neck to a tree and dead. The people of the county explained that she had been unable to keep up with the other slaves in a gang."

Not only did the Europeans kidnap the natives for their slave markets, but the natives themselves, fighting one tribe against the other, sold their conquered enemies to the traders. Livingstone struggled to educate the natives to give up this cruel practice just as earnestly as he condemned the white men who took advantage of their ignorance and savage state.

He soon turned back to his Africa and was once again on unknown trails, hunting for the mysterious and elusive source of the Nile. He explored and re-explored Lake Nyassa in the hope that it would prove the birthplace of the ancient Egyptian river. Worn nearly to a skeleton, captured and robbed by Arabs, he at last reached Tanganyika, its true source.

By this time the English government had completely lost track of him. For years there had been no word from Livingstone. Many believed that he had per-

ished or was, perhaps, being held captive by a savage tribe.

In 1871 the New York *Herald* sent Henry M. Stanley to find him. Stanley, born in Wales, but an American by adoption, had traveled as a newspaper correspondent in many lands. It is a wonder that he should ever have succeeded with such a wide, unknown land in which to search; but he did find him, and the meeting of the two has become famous through Stanley's historic words of greeting, "Dr. Livingstone, I presume? "

Livingstone, who was pale and weak from illness, had been left without supplies by marauding Arabs. When Stanley tried to persuade him to return to England, he gave him his diary by which many of the long-hidden mysteries of inland Africa were disclosed; but as for himself he heroically refused to leave. Two years later Stanley set out on an expedition, and continuing Livingstone's work explored vast areas in what was then considered darkest Africa.

The terrible hardships Livingstone had undergone had so broken his health that he was no longer able even to ride his donkey. He soon reached the end of the trail, fighting until his last moments. Sadly his faithful Negro followers carried him to Loanda whence he was taken to England.

His grateful motherland bestowed great honors, including burial in Westminster Abbey, on the man who had given his life so freely to her service.

CECIL RHODES

1853-1902

As a college student at Oxford, Cecil Rhodes was making a splendid record in scholarship when he was threatened with serious illness and ordered to take a long sea voyage. In order to build up his health he decided to join his brother Herbert and live an outdoor life on the frontiers of England's flourishing possessions in South Africa.

In the very year that he went to Natal, there occurred the first great diamond rush at Kimberley. His brother, fired by the reports of sudden wealth that came back from the great diamond fields, left his farm and persuaded Cecil to go with him to Kimberley. These two adventurous young men staked out a claim, and before he was twenty years of age Cecil had made a great fortune. His brother, unhappily, met death a few years later in a tragic accident.

There were many others who became rich in this diamond rush, but Cecil Rhodes seemed to be followed by good luck at every turn. The story is told of a lunch party that he gave to some friends one day on the Vaal River. Rhodes was himself very fond of eating, and he always entertained in lavish style. The luncheon cost him the sum of £40, \$200 in our money. After the feast was over, and he and his guests were

walking about, he leaned over and picked up from the pebbles at the river's edge a diamond which he sold later in Kimberley for exactly £40.

As Theodore Roosevelt gained physical strength on the plains of our West, so Cecil Rhodes found both health and prosperity in the frontier life of South Africa. When he was twenty-seven years old he returned to England to continue his interrupted studies at Oxford and receive his degree. He was at that time a tall, stalwart man, whose piercing, steel-blue eyes gave an indication of the inflexible will that was his most striking characteristic. There were some who thought he resembled in face and expression the Roman Cæsars, and Rhodes himself did not object to being spoken of as "The Emperor."

When Rhodes returned to Africa, after graduating from college, he continued the public life already started on his former stay, when he had been made a member of the House of Assembly at Cape Colony. Young Rhodes was a thorough-going Englishman. He not only believed in his country, but he believed the Anglo-Saxon people to be the greatest race on earth. At this time the imperialistic doctrines of Disraeli were rampant in South Africa. When England had first seized Cape Colony from the Dutch during the war with Napoleon, she had immediately insisted on the use of the English language there, and later abolished slavery, a custom to which the Dutch were much attached. Thousands of the Dutch inhabitants,

known as Boers, disliking these changes, had moved northward and established settlements, independent of English rule — the Orange Free State, Natal, and Transvaal. The English, however, found one excuse after another for annexing these new Dutch states, until by the time that Rhodes returned to Africa they had seized them all.

The Disraeli doctrine of extending England's possessions never had a more ardent supporter than this energetic young man, Cecil Rhodes, with his wonderful powers of concentration and organizing ability. At this time, however, the power of Gladstone in the English government was so great that both the Transvaal and the Orange Free State were given almost complete independence.

In the very next year gold was discovered in the Transvaal. Thousands of English adventurers, searching for immediate wealth, flocked into the Dutch Free States in much the same mad rush as happened in this country when gold was discovered in California. It was not many years before the English population far outnumbered the Dutch. Most of the latter were very little interested in digging gold. They were farmers and were perfectly satisfied to develop their lands and accumulate wealth more slowly with the plow. They looked upon the English miners as transients and refused to give them either the right to vote or to hold office in their little republics.

Cecil Rhodes was by this time the most prominent

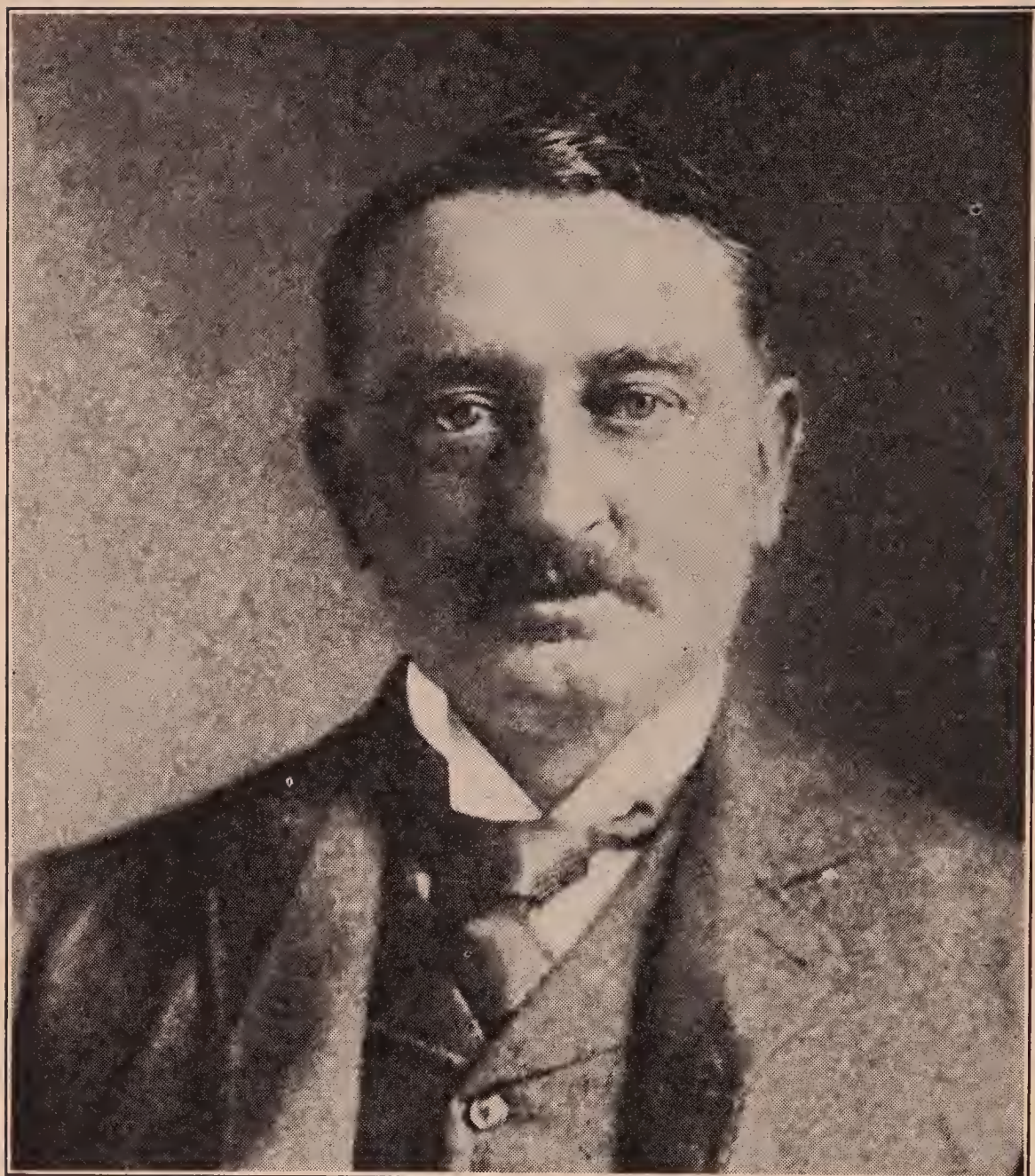
man in South Africa. He was not only prime minister of Cape Colony, but was also president of the great British South African Company. Among the people he was familiarly known as "The Old Man" or "The Chief." He was both rich and influential, and with a natural tendency to rule others his word had become almost law.

Rhodes had always cherished the idea of conquering these northern Dutch republics for England, and, besides, the British South Africa Company had large interests in mining lands and eagerly sought for the possession of additional territory. Rhodes, therefore, encouraged the English settlers in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State to revolt against the Dutch government under which they had been forced to live. Then, as president of the company, he ordered Dr. Jameson with fifteen hundred mounted police, employed by the company, to go to the aid of the English in their uprising against the Boers. This raid proved a great failure, for the Boers turned the tables on them, capturing and imprisoning the entire band before they had had time to unite their strength with that of the English miners in the Transvaal. Since this raid was unauthorized by the English government, Rhodes suffered for a time a great deal of criticism for taking such matters into his own hands. His excuse and that of his friends is that what Rhodes did was always done more for the glory of England than for any private gain.

In the meantime Rhodes had been carrying out his policy of expansion in the lands north of the Transvaal, and, as head of the British South Africa Company, he had been for years gradually buying a vast tract of land, penetrating deep into the interior of Central Africa. This land was held only after fierce struggles with savage tribes, which he gradually subdued and drove farther north until, by 1895, the country was a fairly peaceful settlement. This great area, called Rhodesia, in honor of Rhodes, extends over one third the distance from Capetown to Cairo and is three and one half times as large as the British Isles.

Rhodes's cherished dream was the construction of a great transcontinental railroad from Cairo to Capetown, every mile of which was to be built on English territory. Egypt had come under English control in 1882 so that over two thousand miles could be constructed in English lands directly from Cairo. In the central part of Africa, between Egypt and Rhodesia, lay two vast areas of land, one under the control of Belgium and the other a German possession. Since England, as a result of the World War, has fallen heir to the greater part of the German possessions in Africa, Rhodes's vision of the Capetown to Cairo railroad, every inch laid on English soil, may soon come true.

Although Cecil Rhodes amassed great wealth, he always tried to use it for the common good. He looked upon his vast fortune as a means of carrying out his



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CECIL RHODES

big enterprises and new ideas. One of his favorite hobbies was farming, and he was devoted to the interest of the South African farmers. Many of them found their crops a failure, because methods of agriculture suitable for Western Europe would not succeed there.

For this reason he established an experimental farm on his own estate where he tried out various grains and vegetables in order to be able to give advice and assistance to the farmers in their crop raising.

Cecil Rhodes was a natural leader. The natives of South Africa grew to look upon this powerful man as the chief of all the white men. In times of their uprisings, they would confer with him when they would probably have assassinated any other white man.

When in Europe he was entertained by royalty, and his beautiful homes in South Africa were on occasions visited by members of the royal families. There was no fear in Rhodes for the titled monarchs of earth. At one time Rhodes had an interview with the German emperor. These two admired each other greatly. They had a long conversation, and then Rhodes got up and shook hands informally, saying, "Well, good-by, I've got to go now, as I have some people coming to dinner," — entirely forgetting that court etiquette demanded that visitors did not leave until dismissed by the Kaiser.

One of Rhodes's homes was in Kimberley; the other was on an extensive ranch in the great spaces of Rhodesia. The latter was his favorite, for he loved nature and the wild life of the frontier. He was careless of his dress and always wore a soft slouch hat, cup-shaped like those of the Boer farmers, in spite of the fact that his valet ordered for him suits and hats by the dozen. His beautiful home in Rhodesia was open

not only to his friends, but also to travelers who were visiting that country. It is said that nothing pleased him more than to have visiting strangers, in his absence, order luncheon to be prepared for them by his servants.

Four years passed after the "Jameson raid," and during this time the Boers in the Orange Free State and the Transvaal felt that the English were merely waiting for an excuse to take possession of their lands. In 1899, under the leadership of Paul Kruger, the president of the Transvaal, war was declared on England by these two small republics. By this time the English authorities had forgiven Rhodes for his part in instigating the "Jameson raid" and willingly made use of his services. During the Boer War he bravely helped in the defense of Kimberley against a Dutch attack, and his untiring efforts during the siege brought on a severe illness. The success of the Dutch against the English in battle after battle, for several years, was remarkable. Thousands of troops were sent to South Africa from Canada and Australia as well as from England, and even the genius of Lord Roberts, the English commander-in-chief, was taxed before the two republics were finally defeated. The English government united these Dutch republics with Natal and Cape Colony into the South African Union. Since that time the prosperity and comfort of the Dutch have been so great that they have become more than reconciled to the British empire.

While Cecil Rhodes was realizing his dream of Eng-

lish domination in South Africa, another vision filled his thoughts. He believed that the future welfare of the world depended largely upon a union of all English-speaking peoples. He wished to strengthen the friendly understanding between America and England. He also believed that the peace of the world demanded that cordial relations should be established with Germany. It was his idea that if young men from these countries could meet and exchange ideas during their college days, they would always in the future have common interests and would go back to their own countries and spread this sympathy of understanding. The bulk of his great fortune, therefore, was left to establish scholarships to be competed for by students from Great Britain, the United States, and Germany. He naturally selected Oxford as the center where these scholars were to meet. The United States received a very generous allowance of these scholarships. It is provided by his will that two students may be sent to Oxford from each state and territory, and that they shall receive each year for three years £300 to pay their expenses at that university.

It was his wish that he be buried in his beloved Rhodesia. His grave was cut in the solid rocks on a high point of land which was his favorite "View of the World," as he called it, where he had often stood and gained inspiration from the wild grandeur of that endless sea of rugged, giant boulders.

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE

1820-1910

OVER a hundred years ago there was born, in Italy, a little girl who was to become a "torchbearer in the name of humanity." Although she first opened her eyes in the beautiful city of Florence, she was an English child, and her parents, because she was born so far from her native land, thought they could find no better name for their little daughter than that of the fair city which was her birthplace. Thus Florence Nightingale was named.

When Florence was still quite young, the family returned to their home in England, near Lea Hurst. It was here that Florence first showed her talent for the work to which she was to give her life. One day while driving in the country near by, she came upon an old shepherd whom she knew. Upon inquiry she learned that "Cap," his sheep dog, had been seriously hurt by some boys who had been throwing stones at him. Her sympathy and indignation both aroused, she went in search of the poor dog, who was suffering so from the cruel treatment he had received that the shepherd feared it would be necessary to kill him. Florence begged to be allowed to take "Cap" home and nurse him back to health. Her request was granted, and after several weeks the dog regained his strength and

became devoted to his kind little nurse. Perhaps Florence did not realize then that "Cap," though only a dog, was the first of the many sufferers whom she was to comfort in later years.

Full of initiative and ambition, Florence naturally became discontented with the easy, comfortable, uneventful life at Lea Hurst. She finally decided to go abroad to study hospital and nursing conditions, for by this time she realized in what field she wished to work. She went first to Germany where she studied at the great hospital and training school at Kaiserworth. Realizing the urgent need of more institutions of that kind, she returned to England, fired with an ardent desire to establish a similar one there.

The fates, however, determined otherwise; for in 1854 England and France declared war against Russia, and it was in this great struggle, known as the Crimean War, that Florence Nightingale was to do her greatest work. Word came that the British Army was suffering greatly from want of proper medical care and from unsanitary conditions. The English nurses, like those in most other countries, were coarse, uneducated, untrained women, for it was considered highly improper for any refined woman to be a nurse. A desperate call for help came, and Florence Nightingale sent word to the war office, "Here am I; send me!" Her generous offer was eagerly accepted, for the greatest need lay for a refined, cultured, trained woman to take the lead. Her family and friends were at first greatly shocked,

*Edwin H. Landseer*

CRIMEAN WAR

for women had never before gone to hospitals at the "front."

We, who live in this time when women's opportunities have greatly increased, find it hard to realize what a true pioneer she was. She and thirty-eight of the best nurses she could secure, known as the "Angel Band," arrived in Crimea in the hour of the greatest need, the day before the terrific battle of Inkerman. This battle, though an English victory, was won at a dear cost, and the task of caring for the wounded fell to Miss Nightingale and her "Angel Band." She found conditions indescribably terrible, but under her

expert leadership they improved rapidly, and the death-rate which had been forty-two per cent when she arrived soon fell to two per cent. It was her custom to pass through all of the wards each night to see that everything was in the best condition possible. In her hand she always carried a little lamp, and thus she became known and loved by all as "the lady with the lamp."

All this was not accomplished, however, without extreme hard work and effort on her part, and, weakened from overwork, she was stricken with the worst form of Crimean fever. The hut in which she lay ill was in danger of attack by the Russians; but when they learned of her whereabouts, they refused to continue their attack in that direction, for it was well known that she gave aid and comfort alike to friend or foe. For a time the doctors feared for her life, but, the crisis safely passed, she recovered rapidly.

Peace was declared in 1856, but Miss Nightingale remained at her post until the last wounded man had been dismissed and her work finished. Before she left for home, she had a monument erected at her own expense in memory of the soldiers and nurses who had perished during the war. Her extreme modesty led her to refuse the offer of the English government of a "man-of-war" as a mark of honor to bring her home. She returned to England in an ordinary ship and succeeded in reaching her home unrecognized by the throngs which had gathered to greet her.



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FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE SEATED ON PIAZZA IN SCUTARI. BEYOND
THE STRAITS LIES CONSTANTINOPLE.

After the return of Miss Nightingale to England, she received a very cordial letter from Queen Victoria containing an urgent invitation to visit her. Miss Nightingale accepted this invitation and spent some time with the royal family at Balmoral where she secured a much needed rest.

At a large dinner in honor of the army and naval officers who had returned safely from Crimea, slips of paper were passed out on which each man was asked to write the name of the person whose services during the recent war would be the longest remembered. Every slip without one exception had written upon it the two words, "Florence Nightingale." This is a most significant fact because it showed that not only the privates, who for the most part were the ones in contact with Florence Nightingale, but also the officers realized the great service that she had rendered.

Though Miss Nightingale is best known for her wonderful work during the Crimean War, she did not retire to a peaceful, uneventful life after her return to England. She was a great executive and a fine organizer and she went to work to wage her campaign for more devoted, skilled, and refined nurses of which her experience in Crimea had shown her the great need. Indeed it may be said that Florence Nightingale raised nursing from a trade to a profession.

With unflagging spirit, she went to work in the War Office in London and rendered great service to the English army in India. She worked most enthusi-

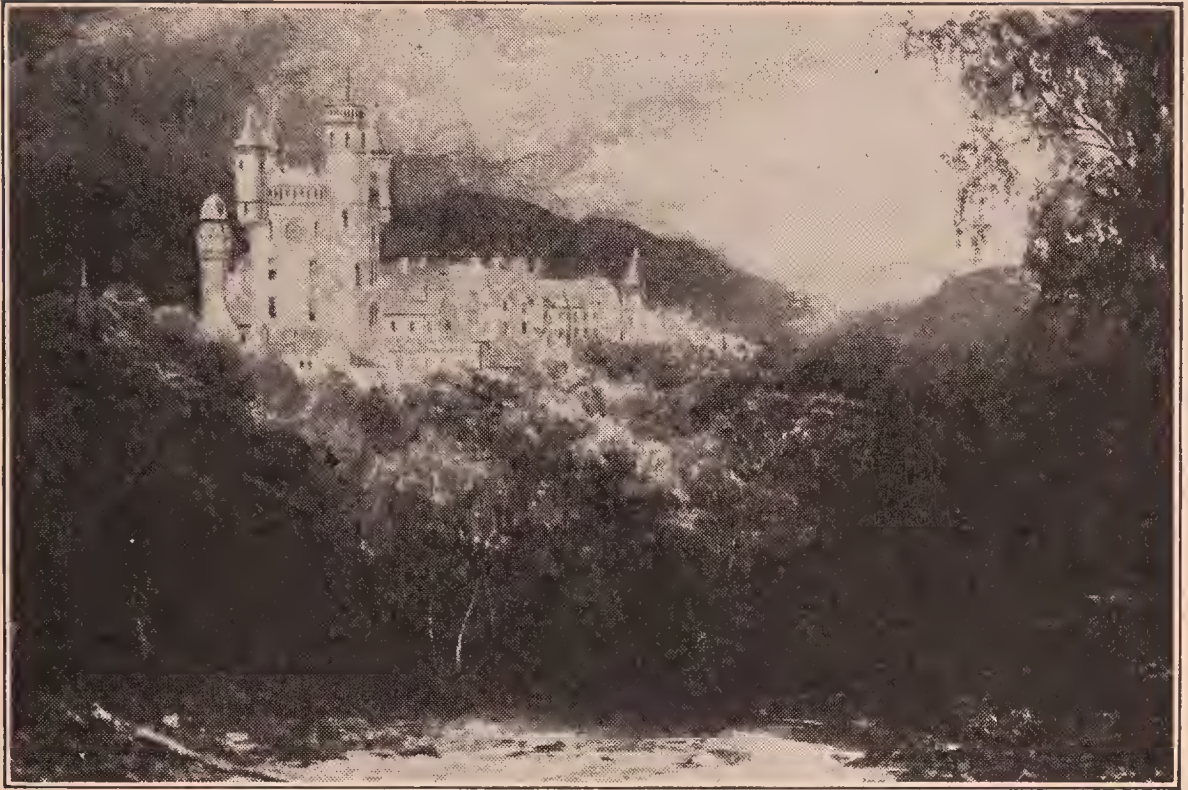
astically on the famous "Report of the Indian Sanitary Commission." But her labors had told upon her, and she had really been an invalid ever since she had returned from Crimea.

At length she was confined to her bed; but still her labors for better hospital conditions both at home and abroad continued, and many plans and much good advice came from her sick room. It was only by her great will power and her devotion to her cause that she was able to carry on her wonderful work during this time.

Although she was mainly connected with the work in India, Miss Nightingale also had a great influence in army affairs at home. She acted as a sort of advisory council to the War Office and enjoyed many privileges because she was regarded as the first expert on many of the questions with which the office was at that time troubled. All regulations for military hospitals and nursing staffs were submitted to Miss Nightingale for approval, suggestions, or corrections.

Once when the War Office asked for her criticism of some cavalry barracks, she made a plea for "a window in each stall for the horses to look out of." There spoke the same warm heart that had rescued "Cap" many years before.

The conditions which Miss Nightingale saw and reformed during the Crimean War were almost paralleled by the conditions which existed in the regular hospitals at home. In 1867 some reform legislation

*David Low*

BALMORAL CASTLE WHERE FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE VISITED QUEEN
VICTORIA

was passed which greatly improved this terrible state of affairs, and it was Florence Nightingale's influence which brought about this helpful legislation. It was a memorable day indeed in the nursing history of England when, on May 16, 1865, the Nightingale Training School for nurses was opened — a monument to the vision and labors of Florence Nightingale!

Florence Nightingale, although she was called an "administering angel" by her devoted patients, was by no means a "plaster saint." She was not given to flattery and not quick to forgive a mistake. She realized that to do good work one must have not only a soft heart but also a hard head. She was to a certain extent unable to tolerate the views of others if they

did not coincide with her own, and she disliked to be dependent upon or opposed by any one. These sterner qualities, however, are far overshadowed by her pity, sympathy, skill, and her passionate desire to serve others. She was as clever and witty as she was sympathetic, and she brought about many reforms by matching her wit with those in control.

Florence Nightingale believed that men and women were in this world to work for the betterment of the human race, and it is clearly seen that throughout her life her motto was "Service."

The government was not unmindful or unappreciative of the long years of service which Florence Nightingale had rendered her country. Accordingly, on May 12, 1904, in celebration of her eighty-fourth birthday, she received the honor of "Lady of Grace of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem." She is, up to the present time, the only woman to have been awarded this high and rare distinction.

When Miss Nightingale died several months after her ninetieth birthday, it was the wish of the entire nation to bestow one last honor upon this great woman, that of burying her in Westminster Abbey, the resting place of England's "great." This tribute, however, could not be paid, because of a previously expressed desire of Miss Nightingale's to be laid to rest in the quiet village churchyard near her childhood home. Her wishes were carried out in great reverence, and in 1916 a statue in her memory was unveiled by Queen Mary.

The eventful outcome of her labors is the great Red Cross organization which played so important a part in the World War and whose work is a vast far-reaching expression of Florence Nightingale's motto, "Service."

It can be said of her that she was "one whose life makes a great difference for all. All are better off than if she had not lived, and this betterness is for always; it did not die with her." That is the true estimate of a great life. Longfellow says of her:

"A lady with a lamp shall stand
In the great history of the land
A noble type of good,
Heroic Womanhood."

EDWARD JENNER

1749–1823

LOUIS PASTEUR

1822–1895

AMONG the events of importance in this age of reform and revolution there is perhaps none that has had more influence on life than the rise of modern science. It has not only increased man's knowledge of himself, of animals, plants, minerals, and gases, but has enabled him to some extent to control nature so that his own lot has been greatly improved. The future of science holds out unlimited possibilities for the further development of man's powers and resources. The conquest of nature as fought out in the laboratories of the scientists is as thrilling a story as that of famous battlefields of war.

Man has always possessed a "noble curiosity." The ancient Egyptians and Greeks gave much thought to the world about them. But it was not until the invention of scientific instruments like the microscope and the telescope that great strides could be made in science. In the early eighteenth century people still believed that sickness was due to the presence of devils or was the punishment inflicted by providence for evil deeds.

In ancient times malaria destroyed the strength of

great nations, for those who did not die remained a weakened people. All through the Middle Ages, dread scourges like the bubonic plague, smallpox, and cholera killed off thousands. Yellow fever, until a generation ago, wiped out whole cities. For centuries the most dreaded disease of Europe had been smallpox. This was a loathsome disease which every one expected to have. It claimed a Louis XV of France as well as the humblest peasant, and those who did not die were usually disfigured for life.

When Edward Jenner was a boy, physicians believed that every one should prepare himself for smallpox, and then catch it intentionally. The preparation consisted of dieting and blood-letting. It was thought that the attack under these conditions would be mild. George Washington took the smallpox in this way. When Edward Jenner was eight years old he was a fine ruddy boy; but after being prepared for smallpox until he was "emaciated and feeble" and then having the disease, he did not recover his former health for many years. After that terrible experience he made up his mind to devote his life to the task of fighting this dread disease, and did all in his power to prepare himself for this noble work.

He obtained the best medical training offered in England, and then he returned to Berkeley, where he was very successful both in general practice and in surgery.

Dr. Jenner, who was a very close observer, noticed

that peasants who caught cowpox from milking the cows were never subject afterward to smallpox. Cowpox was a very mild disease and was communicated to the peasants only when they milked with hands that were scratched.

He determined to make some experiments and selected for his first case a healthy boy about eight years old, named Phipps. The boy was inoculated with cowpox, was slightly indisposed for a week, and at the end of that time was perfectly well. Later, in order to be sure that he was secure from the contagion of smallpox, Jenner inoculated him with smallpox itself, and no disease followed. In writing up the case Dr. Jenner said he felt it unnecessary to produce further testimony, "That the cowpox protects the human constitution from the smallpox."

It is interesting to know that when young Phipps married years later, Dr. Jenner presented him and his bride with a new and comfortable cottage.

Dr. Jenner continued his experiments, collecting serum from the cattle and injecting it into the blood of many people around Berkeley — with the invariable result that none of them ever contracted smallpox.

In 1798 Dr. Jenner published his discovery to the world, and by 1800 it was widely practiced throughout Europe and America. By 1802 smallpox was a disease thoroughly in control throughout England, and parliament in that year voted Dr. Jenner £10,000 for what he had done to promote human welfare.

The Emperor Napoleon in speaking of Jenner said, "What that man asks is never to be refused." The emperor of Russia while talking to Dr. Jenner said, "How pleasant must be your feelings when you contemplate the services you have rendered mankind. To the world, sir," he added with great emphasis.

Although Jenner had discovered how to save people from smallpox by the use of the serum from cowpox, he had no knowledge of the real cause of the disease. He did not know that he was really dealing with minute living organisms.

Years ago, when this world was young and when man fought his enemies with clubs and stones, his most dangerous foes were the large animals of the forests. Lions, tigers, leopards, and many other wild beasts had no fear of man, and they were always ready to pounce upon him and devour him. Mankind, however, learned to use the bow and arrow and later firearms, so that the great animals of the forest came to fear him and found their only means of self-preservation was to retreat into the depths of the forests. Even here they have great fear of man and slink away at his approach.

It was a great Frenchman named Louis Pasteur, born in 1822, who proved to the world that although danger from the great animals of the forest has gone, there remains with us a far greater danger from millions and millions of small animals and plants which are constantly with us. The tiny plants are called bacteria and grow by dividing into two parts. The danger from the

presence of bacteria in the human body is due to their rapid multiplication. It has been calculated that one of these minute plants under proper condition could in five days form a mass that would fill all the earth's oceans to the depth of one mile. They are everywhere — in the air, in water, in milk, and in the bodies of man and animals. They are so small that they cannot be seen without the aid of powerful microscopes. There are also many kinds of minute animal organisms. Many of these forms of life are not dangerous to health; in fact they are necessary to it. Others, however, are most harmful, and some are so dangerous that if they once get started feeding on the tissue of our bodies, death is certain.

This germ-theory of disease, like many other theories, had been thought of long before, but it was never proved until Pasteur made his experiments.

Louis Pasteur, chosen by popular vote of the French as the greatest Frenchman that ever lived, was not born of an aristocratic family, nor was he brought up in poverty. His father was a tanner. Little did he and his wife realize that their small home in Arbois would some day be dedicated to the memory of their son, and that sightseers would come to read the plaque which was placed over the door and bore the inscription, "Here was born Louis Pasteur, December 27, 1822."

His parents, determined to make their son an educated man, made great sacrifices in order to give him a college training in chemistry, a subject in which he was



Albert Edelfed (lt)

PASTEUR IN HIS LABORATORY

Taken from Lumet "Pasteur," Librairie Hachette, Editeur.

much interested. As a college student, Pasteur, who really wanted to learn and insisted on understanding everything clearly, worried his poor old professor by continually asking questions. The professor, who taught by the old-fashioned method of having his students memorize answers from the book, finally told Pasteur to hold his tongue. He added that it was not the teacher's place to be questioned, but that it was his business to do the questioning. Pasteur, not satisfied with this method of teaching, hunted out a learned chemist in the town who gladly gave him some additional lessons.

His college days were not days of luxury. Pasteur, with two student friends, lived in a stone-paved room that was cold in winter and hot in summer. He tells us that he hired a stove for eight francs, but could only use it on two occasions because he could not afford to buy wood. He did succeed in getting together enough money to buy a cover for his table, which was so full of cracks and holes that he could not write on it.

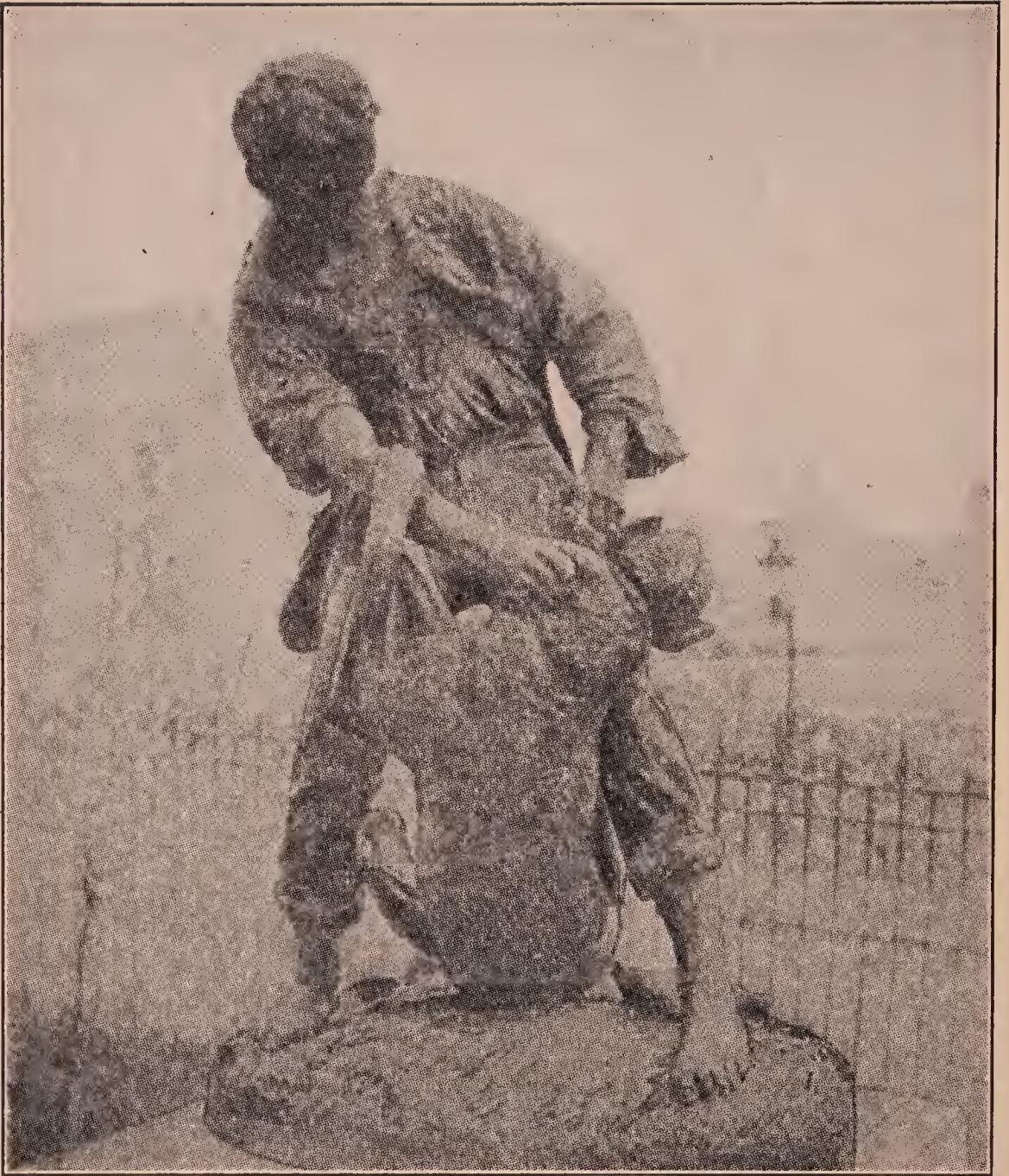
When he was twenty-six years of age he became professor in the college of Dijon, and a year later he was appointed to the chair of chemistry in the college of Strassburg.

It was at this time that he fell in love with one of the rector's daughters. In a letter to her he wrote: "All I possess is good health, a good heart, and my position in the University. There is nothing in me to attract a girl, but memory tells me that when people have

known me well they have liked me. Time will show you that under this shy and cold exterior there is a heart full of affection for you." The proposal was accepted, and they were married in 1849. It was said that Pasteur was so absorbed in his work that some one had to go to his laboratory and remind him that it was his wedding day. His wife, Marie, proved a most devoted companion, although her husband was generally so intent on his researches that he forgot all appointments and never thought of his meals. Madame Pasteur sometimes scolded him for working so hard and so long, but he always replied by telling her that he was doing it to make a name for her.

When Pasteur was made professor of chemistry at the Sorbonne, he carried on a careful study of the products of France, such as wine and silk. He discovered that the fermentation of the wine was caused by minute living organisms that were not harmful to health. On searching for the reason for the failure of the silk worm in producing a good cocoon, he found that the cause was a disease and that the silk worm was being attacked by millions of germs. From this discovery he was led to believe that many diseases of man are caused in the same way and that the great task of physicians in the future was to learn how to fight these invaders.

The applications of this great discovery of Pasteur are endless in number. The Pasteur treatment of hydrophobia, a disease which had a death-rate of one hundred per cent, is now completely successful as a



STATUE IN FRONT OF PASTEUR INSTITUTE

Representing Jean Baptiste Jupille, one of the earliest subjects treated by Pasteur, in a life and death struggle with a mad dog.

Taken from Lumet "Pasteur," Librairie Hachette, Editeur.

life-saving measure. The Pasteurization of milk has saved the lives of thousands of babies. The vast industry of canning is based on Pasteur's idea of killing the germs that cause decay. His discovery revolutionized surgery, for it taught surgeons the necessity of sterilizing all their instruments very carefully. This greatly reduced the danger from blood poison which had, up to this time, made many operations fatal.

From Pasteur's time to the present, physicians working on the principle of the germ-theory of disease have discovered that many of the most terrible diseases afflicting mankind, such as pneumonia, diphtheria, cholera, typhoid, etc., are due to the presence of germs, and they have learned how to combat them. In the treatment of many of these diseases antitoxins are being used to counteract the ill effects of the presence in the blood of these tiny organisms.

It is thus that these small but countless enemies of mankind are being hunted down, and means of warding them off or rendering our bodies able to withstand their attacks are being practiced. It is predicted that tuberculosis, which has been reduced fifty per cent, will soon be a disease of the past among civilized people. Able physicians believe that the time will come when the dreaded cancer will be unknown.

A wonderful benefactor to mankind was Pasteur. He could with great appropriateness make his toast to the world: "Health and happiness to all!"

ALBERT I, KING OF THE BELGIANS

1875—

ALBERT I is often spoken of as the brave king of a brave people. "*Fortissimi sunt Belgæ*," said Cæsar, in his accounts of his famous wars nearly two thousand years ago. And the ancient house of Coburg, from which comes the present Belgian ruler, gained its first fighting fame by the war which it waged against Attila and his Huns in the great Thuringian Forest during the Middle Ages. The present king of the Belgians has not failed to do his part to sustain the record of the historic bravery of the Belgians.

Albert I was extremely fortunate in his early life and home surroundings. His father, the Count of Flanders, second son of King Leopold I, was a soldier, a lover of art and books, and an ardent patriot. Albert's mother not only loved music and literature, but was herself a painter of considerable talent. Albert, the fifth child of his parents, was born in April, 1875.

From the first these devoted parents gave at least two hours each day to the education of their children. Beaudoin, the oldest prince, died in 1883, leaving Albert heir to the throne. As Albert's parents entertained a great deal, he and his sisters had many chances to meet interesting and famous people. Their summers were spent at Les Amerois, a beautiful country

home, where every one was welcome. There were lovely gardens, and the mansion itself contained many artistic features, among them the famous monumental staircase from the Paris exhibition of 1878. Here on the green lawns, under great shade trees, parties were held, presents were distributed to all, and the children and grandchildren of European royalty romped and played together.

Like all continental princes, Albert was destined to be in the army. It was as a future heir to the Belgian throne that he entered the Government Military School near Brussels. He was even then a tall, lanky, almost ungainly youth, always ready to blush, and with such a shy and hesitating air that people sometimes failed to see the real force that lay underneath. Albert's schoolmates were chiefly from the middle class, fine, manly boys, but entirely ignorant of court life, or of the polished manners of the upper classes. At first, abashed in the presence of a prince, they avoided him. Later, when they knew him better, they inflicted upon him much good-natured "ragging." Albert was not allowed to sleep at the school as the other boys did, but was taken home every night. In all other respects, however, he followed the same general routine. He wore the same uniform, shared meals with them, had the same amount of pocket money, and was obliged, according to the rule of the school, to salute all commissioned and non-commissioned officers.

As Albert grew to manhood and realized the re-

sponsibilities that would come to him as king, he felt that there was much that he should know that he had not yet learned at school. With great conscientiousness he set himself to study military science and diplomacy, choosing for instructors the finest men in the country.

In order to round out his education he traveled extensively. When he was twenty-four years of age he visited the United States. Those who saw him at that time say that he was as simple in his manner as a plain citizen — “a kindly and gentle young man with an intense eagerness to learn.” While in this country, he studied our railroad systems, visited the great cloth factories in Massachusetts, and went himself down into the coal mines of Pennsylvania. He wanted Belgium, a great industrial country, to profit by everything that America could teach him.

On his return from America Albert made a similar visit to Germany to study the latest industrial developments there. Here he met the Princess Elizabeth of Bavaria whom he later married. It was an ideal marriage because it not only united the future ruler of Belgium with a princess of the most noble blood in Bavaria, but it was also a real love match. The marriage ceremony was celebrated at Munich with dinners, concerts, and fêtes of all kinds. An equally gay and splendid reception awaited the young couple on their return to Brussels.

As heir to the throne Albert had a seat in the senate,

and in 1908 he made his first public speech. It was a subject that was very dear to his heart and upon which he had spent much time and study. He mapped out before the senate a plan for the further development of Belgian shipping, participation of Belgium in the Congress of International Law, and extension of Belgium's part in the world trade. During the summer of 1909 he made an important trip to Belgium's vast territory in Africa, known as the Congo. On this trip he made a study of the valuable trade and agricultural prospects of these African possessions. He also saw for himself some of the abuses prevalent there in the treatment of the natives, and he determined to make conditions better.

When Albert came to the throne in 1909 at the death of his grandfather Leopold I, his father having died four years before, he dismissed the entire government of his predecessor, not because he entirely disagreed with his policies, but because he wanted to make a fresh start. He surrounded himself with men of somewhat more liberal and progressive ideas.

Albert's first efforts as king were directed toward improving the condition of his own countrymen. Aid was extended to the fishermen to prevent their suffering during bad seasons, and large sums of money were advanced to peasants who wished to purchase the farms they worked upon. Then, as now, his main interests were to aid Belgian industry, to improve her factories and farm lands, her mines, and her fishing industries.



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KING ALBERT OF BELGIUM

Albert has always had a great sympathy for fisher-folk. He loves the sea and has a summer home at Ostend. All along the shores beyond the fashionable resort are the picturesque homes of the Belgian fishermen. King Albert loves to mix with these simple folk and hear from their own lips the stories of their experiences. This coast is so beautiful that it has attracted scores of artists who have built cabins on the dunes. With these, too, Albert often talks, for he, like his father and mother, is the friend of artists and writers and encourages them at every opportunity. There is a great love in Belgium among all classes of people for this tall, kindly, and democratic sovereign.

A year after Albert ascended the throne a vast universal exhibition was opened at Brussels. Neither labor nor money had been spared to make this great enterprise a success. To it all the important nations of the world sent exhibits. Just as things were nearing completion, a disastrous fire broke out and a large part of the exhibition was destroyed. Nothing daunted, Albert ordered hasty repairs to be made, and the Brussels Exhibition opened brilliantly with speeches made by notable people from all parts of the globe. Albert was not satisfied merely to preside at this opening. He took a personal interest in every day's proceedings throughout the several months of its duration. Accompanied by the queen, he insisted on visiting every stand, examining every exhibit and asking for explanation of every new idea or invention.

It is said that King Albert did not ascend the throne alone; his family ascended it with him. Queen Elizabeth, whose genuine charity and friendly sympathy won an immediate place for her in the hearts of the Belgians, is always at the king's side. There is certainly no happier picture of royal family life than that which we have of King Albert and Queen Elizabeth and their three children in the peaceful days before the outbreak of the World War.

As king of the Belgians one of the first state visits Albert made was to Berlin in 1910. This visit was marked by the usual splendor of parades, receptions, and dinners. In the absence of the emperor, who was ill at the time, the honors were done by the crown prince. Assurances of friendly sentiments were exchanged, and the intention to guard Belgium's neutrality was reaffirmed. A few months later, Kaiser William II paid King Albert the compliment of a return visit. Albert and the Belgians gave the kaiser a royal welcome, and entertained him with every possible courtesy. At that very time German workmen were busily constructing railroad sidings close to the Belgian boundaries, and it was less than two years later that German troops were backed up to Belgium's borders unloading hundreds of thousands of soldiers who were to swarm over the land and devastate it.

Events in Europe moved rapidly to a crisis. The heir to the throne of Austria had been murdered. Austria declared war upon Serbia. Russian troops

mobilized against Austria, and Germany had declared war first on Russia, and then on Russia's ally, France. The easiest way to enter France was through Belgium. But Germany had signed a treaty with France and England that Belgium should be held as strictly neutral territory.

At five o'clock on the second day of August, 1914, King Albert received an ultimatum from Germany giving him twelve hours, from seven P.M. to seven A.M., to decide whether German troops would be allowed to pass through Belgium on their way to France. Germany promised that the country would be unharmed if her soldiers were allowed to pass. But if the Belgians refused free passage, they would be treated like enemies. What was King Albert to do? Should he break his promise of remaining neutral by granting the kaiser's demand, and thus save his country from war? There were some among the Belgians who would have been willing to do this — though not many. But not the king. Monday, August 4, he sent back to the kaiser a firm and dignified refusal. Belgium would not break her pledge. She would resist the invaders.

Two days later, German troops were crossing the Belgian frontier, and Albert was on the way to take command of his army. From Liege to Namur to Belgium's western boundary King Albert's brave soldiers, gallantly fighting, were slowly driven back, leaving a ruined and suffering country behind them.

They could not stem the tide, but they checked it long enough to save France. When the Germans were pressing King Albert hard, his ministers urged him again and again to seek safety in England. The king's reply was always: "My place is with my soldiers." Forced out of his own country into France, he took his place side by side with the Allies. And while Albert was fighting, Queen Elizabeth was working in the hospitals and personally supervising the work of the Red Cross.

When victory came and Albert returned to his country, he found cathedrals wrecked, cities laid waste, and suffering everywhere. In spite of this, there was great rejoicing on the day King Albert reëntered Brussels, for Belgium had kept her pledge and won a great name for bravery. The city was gayly decorated; Albert reviewed his troops, and the crowds cheered and wept at the sight of their beloved king. Albert rode down between the cheering lines, his usually calm and noble face worn with the strain and sadness of the awful struggle.

A great Belgian writer, Maeterlinck, said of King Albert:

"Of all the heroes of this stupendous struggle, heroes who will live in the memory of man, one assuredly of the most unsullied, one of those whom we can never love enough, is the great young king of my little country. He was indeed, at the critical hour, the appointed man for whom every heart was waiting."

GEORGES CLEMENCEAU

1841—

WHEN Georges Clemenceau, the great French statesman of the World War, was a little boy, growing up in a small village in southern France, there were tottering old men alive who used to sit around and tell stories of the days when they fought under the great Napoleon Bonaparte. Georges' father, a land-owner and country doctor, was an ardent lover of freedom, and a sturdy defender of the French republic in all the ups and downs it experienced from the time of its first establishment.

One of Georges' earliest recollections was the wild and happy excitement of his father at the restoration of the republic in 1848 when Louis Philippe abdicated and Louis Napoleon was made president of the new republic. That happiness was short-lived, for in 1851, when Louis Napoleon made himself Emperor Napoleon III, Georges' father and other zealous lovers of the republic were put into jail. The older Clemenceau, who hated all kings and emperors, returned home full of bitterness at the downfall of the republic. But he kept alive in his own heart, and inspired in the heart of his son, the fierce hope of one day seeing the republic again restored.

Georges seems to have been a chip of the old block. He inherited his father's passion for freedom, he shared his love of art and literature, and he even adopted his profession. When he left his village home to study medicine at Paris, he was physically as sturdy and full of energy as outdoor life and country air could make him, mentally keen and alert, and fired with democratic ideals of free speech and free press. Those were dangerous ideals at that time. When young Clemenceau entered the Paris Hospital as a medical student, Napoleon III, who was now exercising almost despotic power in France, issued a decree that no periodical or newspaper treating of political life or social questions could be published except by permission of the government. This did not at all discourage Clemenceau, who found time from his duties at the hospital to do much writing for the radical papers, and early joined one of the many republican clubs rapidly springing up in opposition to the rule of Napoleon III. One day he startled the emperor by shouting under his august nose, "Vive la republique!" He was immediately seized and put into prison. Three years later, when he had taken his doctor's degree, he decided that France was no place for an ambitious young republican to nourish his plans, and started off to spend a few years in travel and study of other countries. His prison experience had by no means weakened his courage, for, throughout a long and stormy existence, "popular or unpopular," he spoke the truth.

Shortly after the close of our Civil War, Clemenceau visited the United States, and for a time was professor of French in a young ladies' boarding school at Stamford, Connecticut, a short distance from New York City. The young French doctor was a splendid horseman, and often accompanied the young ladies of the school on their riding trips about the beautiful Connecticut hills. On these rides Clemenceau fell in love with one of the young girls. Unfortunately her aunt and uncle were very strict and would not hear of the marriage of their young niece with this slender young man with aggressive jaw and deep-set, flashing eyes. A month's separation strengthened their affection, and in desperation they eloped. The marriage so happily begun was not a successful one, and was ended some years later by divorce.

During the period of his exile over here Clemenceau was following closely the struggle in France between the monarchists and the republicans. The old empire was crumbling, and Napoleon III was rapidly losing the support of the people. One thing, among others, that brought ridicule and scorn upon his head was his foolish attempt to interfere in Mexico just at the close of our Civil War. He thought that the unsettled condition in Mexico offered a splendid opportunity for him to set up an empire under his protection. He conspired with some of the Mexicans who wanted to overthrow the republic, and in 1864 sent over Maximilian, Archduke of Austria, to rule as emperor of Mexico.

When Napoleon III found that the United States was ready to go to war to uphold the Monroe Doctrine, he speedily withdrew. He had no desire to meet so powerful an enemy.

It was not long after this unfortunate episode that Napoleon III was overwhelmingly defeated at Sedan and fled to England.

After this crushing blow by the Germans, the government of France had to be reëstablished under most trying circumstances. In the battle for the restoration of the republic, Clemenceau, who had returned to France, was fighting in the front ranks. France was again declared a republic and has remained so to this day.

Clemenceau, now thirty years old, was chosen mayor of Montmartre (a part of Paris). In the siege of Paris that followed, Clemenceau was almost a dictator. He raised a new republican army, drilled recruits, organized and supervised all local affairs, and won the lasting devotion of the people of that section of the city.

At the close of the war they sent him to represent them in the National Assembly, which had been forced to retire to Bordeaux on the coming of the Germans to Paris and Versailles.

After a brief service as assemblyman, he devoted himself for four years to his profession as a doctor, working among his own people in Montmartre, and doing much service for the poor people free of charge.

When he was again elected to the Assembly in 1876 he had so won the esteem and love of the people of Paris that they were solidly behind him. Though never a socialist, he recognized the hardships the working people had to suffer, and throughout his long years of service in the French parliament he labored to pass laws for their safety and comfort. His watchwords were "fair play" and "freedom for all." On all political questions he took a democratic stand. He believed in religious toleration and universal education.

In matters of foreign policy he was a man of peace. He was a firm friend of England, and did all in his power to cement the friendship between England and France. But he was opposed to an alliance of the French nation with Russia, because of the autocratic rule of the czar. His colonial policy was exactly opposed to the idea of imperial expansion that was sweeping all Europe. He could not see the sense of risking millions of francs in remote expeditions when his own country needed schools and roads.

After seventeen years of such activity in public affairs, he was compelled by his political opponents to retire. He was then an extremely active and alert man, a little over fifty years of age, with the same combination of physical force and intellectual interests that he had shown as a boy.

Turning from politics, he had now for the first time the opportunity to indulge his love of literature and of writing. In a short time he became France's



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CLEMENCEAU

greatest journalist, writing not only newspaper and magazine articles, but essays and a novel.

But France still had need of him in public life. When he was sixty-five years old, he reëntered parliament as Minister of the Interior. Six months later he became prime minister. His head was now bald, his mustache gray, but from under the bushy, white eyebrows his eyes glowed with the fire and energy of youth.

He needed all the force that he could summon to meet the difficulties that surged upon him. A few days before he took office a terrible mining disaster had occurred. The mines had long been considered dangerous, but the mine owners, who were rich and high in political power, had refused to spend any of their tremendous profits on safeguarding the miners. Out of 1,800 miners who went down, 1,150 were stifled or burned to death. Upon Clemenceau fell the burden of handling the strikes and outbreaks that followed. He had troubles abroad as well as at home. Relations with Germany were strained over French possessions in Morocco. Clemenceau was increasingly worried by the threatening attitude of Germany, but his attempts to form an enduring alliance with England were bitterly opposed.

After three years of strenuous activity, Clemenceau resigned the premiership, and from that time on until the outbreak of the World War preached, wrote, implored the French people to prepare, prepare, prepare! "Germany," he said, "believes that the logical consequence of her victory is domination. We do not believe that the logical consequence of our defeat is vassalage."

Writing in his newspaper, *L'Homme Libre* (The Free Man), he warned the people day after day of the approaching danger from Germany, and appealed to Frenchmen to drop all differences of opinion and unite to save France from calamity.





When, in 1914, Germany violated the neutrality of Belgium, Clemenceau relived in his memory the terrible scenes of the invasion of 1870. Devoted as he was to France, and especially to Paris, this new attack came as a great blow.

During the early years of the war, Clemenceau justified the nickname given to him and became a veritable "Tiger." Like that great animal, he crouched silently, watching the moves of the Germans. Then he began to stir a little, getting ready to pounce. The attack came in the form of fiery speeches in which he rained criticisms on the ministers of war for being so inactive.

In 1917, when the military situation looked almost desperate, Clemenceau never lost hope. Everywhere was depression—an air of defeat—talk of compromise. Suddenly, as if by general consent, there came a call for Clemenceau. Here was a man who for years had warned of the German attack. Here was a man who was afraid of nobody. Here was a man whose patriotism was above question. And so it was that France turned to her "Grand Old Man," who at the age of seventy-six assumed the heavy burden of the premiership and the position of minister of war in one of the greatest crises of history.

He proved a tower of strength. When people faltered, or questioned, or doubted, he stood immovable. He breathed new life into the men who were fighting at the front, and into those who were work-

ing in the factories. He inspired others with his dogged determination to win. Always the dare-devil, Clemenceau went right into the front-line trenches. Once, on being reprimanded for being so reckless, he replied: "What does it matter? I am old enough to be killed."

The tide turned in July, 1918, and the French, English, and American troops won victory after victory until the war was over.

When Clemenceau entered the senate to hear the resolution of thanks passed by that body in recognition of his great services to his country, he received an almost overpowering welcome. For the first time in his life the fighting Tiger broke down. Tears ran down his cheeks, and for some minutes he was unable to speak. He had saved the republic for which his father had worked and prayed and suffered.

DAVID LLOYD GEORGE

1863—

IN a picturesque Welsh village between the mountains and the sea there grew up a curly-headed little boy, bright-eyed, attractive, courageous. His father, a school-teacher at Manchester, a man of keen mind, had died when David was a baby, leaving his young wife and their three children with no means of support. Here at Llanystumdy, in a little four-room cottage, David's uncle, a master bootmaker and preacher, undertook to care for his sister's family.

Young David was a mischievous boy, full of energy and afraid of nothing. One old inhabitant of Llanystumdy would say, whenever he found anything wrong about his place, "That's that David Lloyd George at it again."

But, in spite of his reputation for mischief, David was a great stickler for the truth. His early schooling was obtained at the National School provided by the established Church of England. David, brought up by his uncle to be a non-conformist, objected strongly to being forced to follow the religious teachings that were contrary to his beliefs. He organized a sort of strike once, because the school children were forced to say a creed-and-catechism in which they did not believe. He got together all the members of his class,

and they agreed that the next time they were asked to say the creed-and-catechism they would refuse. On the day of the annual visit of the rector, the squire, and the gentry, the schoolmaster was doing his best to show off the class. Unfortunately for him, he asked them to repeat the creed-and-catechism. Much to his surprise, no one stirred. Seconds passed like ages. Suddenly David's younger brother felt a pang of pity for the poor teacher and falteringly started to say the lines. The rest of the class still stood silent, infuriated at the desertion. In spite of the final surrender, the strike had its effect, and the school children were never forced to say the creed-and-catechism again. This was the forerunner of a long struggle, for the freedom of the Welsh people from the established Church of England, which Lloyd George was to wage in parliament.

The Welsh village in which Lloyd George grew up was still feudal in many ways. The squire and rector had great power over the people who did not own their own land, but, like the Irish farmers, worked upon it for their rich landlords. These men laughed at the poor peasants who spoke the Welsh language and scoffed at them for their peculiar customs. This early aroused in Lloyd George a fierce desire to free his people from this oppression and scorn. He was to be later as ardent a defender of Wales as Gladstone had been, and was still, at this time, of Ireland.

David, who was fond of debate, would engage in heated discussions with any one who would argue with

him. In this way he acquired a great deal of knowledge, and was soon able to match his wits against most of the men of the village. In any argument he was clear-headed and quick, and had a way of flashing out at his opponents that left them gasping. In addition to these qualities, he had a gift for understanding the other person's point of view and sympathizing with it, and this gave him a great power in persuading and bringing other people over to his side.

Determined to be a lawyer, he went to the town of Criccieth to study law, his family going with him. All during the four years at school he worked as a clerk in a law office, wrote articles for newspapers, and debated in various societies. In these debates he gave expression to bold and courageous opinions.

When he was twenty-one years old he passed his final examinations, put a brass plate on his front door, and began the practice of law in his back parlor. In a few years he had gained a wonderful reputation. People for hundreds of miles around came to him to help them out of their legal difficulties, and this courageous and sympathetic young man, who understood so well the burdens of the farmer and the injustices he labored under, became known far and wide as the "poor man's lawyer."

Part of his success was the headlong way in which he went at his cases. He surprised his opponents into defeat. Once a case was brought to him in which the church officials of a certain place of worship had re-

fused to allow a man to be buried beside his relatives because they wished to perform rites not used in that particular church. They offered instead a place in the potter's field, where suicides and unknowns are buried. The heirs, enraged, sought Lloyd George to right the matter. He simply told them to prepare the funeral procession, and he would see that the cemetery was at their disposal. The church officials, defying him, promptly locked the gates. Lloyd George calmly proceeded to knock the fence down, and the funeral service was performed.

When Lloyd George, in 1888, married Maggie Owens, a splendid girl of fine old Welsh family, the whole town, by this time devoted heart and soul to the young defender, turned out to celebrate the event, and enthusiastically set off fireworks on the night they left for their honeymoon in London.

Four years later, when a Conservative member of parliament from his district died, Lloyd George, the young Radical lawyer, opposed an old Tory squire in the election of a new member. In his speeches he promised religious liberty, land reforms, and local self-government for Wales. He won his first seat in the English parliament by the narrow margin of eighteen votes.

When he entered parliament as the Liberal member from Carnarvonshire he was the youngest man in the House. The first speech a new member of parliament makes before that critical body of men is always an

ordeal. Lloyd George, a slender, well-dressed young man, in a frock coat and wearing side whiskers, came through his ordeal with flying colors.

Encouraged by his success, he plunged into the real interest of his life — his determination “to tell the comfortable and wealthy that they were living on the poor.”

He began by urging Welsh freedom from the burdens of the State Church, and indicated that he would later work for Welsh home rule. The cabinet at this time was strongly opposed to home rule for Ireland, which Lloyd George, of course, was heartily supporting. Once while arguing on that subject he raised roars of laughter from the House by his quick wit.

“Some day we must have home rule, not only for Ireland, but for Scotland as well and Wales,” he had been saying, when some one in the audience shouted, “And home rule for Hell! ”

“That’s right,” answered Lloyd George. “Every one stick up for his own country.”

During these first years of parliamentary experience the Boer War in South Africa broke out. The ministry was in favor of fighting and suppressing the South African militants, but Lloyd George, always a believer in the rights of small countries to manage their own affairs, hurled speech after speech of criticism against the government for its conduct of the war against the Dutch republics.

As Lloyd George rose higher in public esteem, his



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LLOYD GEORGE

unusual ability was recognized by his appointment as member of the cabinet in the position of president of the Board of Trade. In this work he had an opportunity to exert his power in behalf of the sailors on board British ships. He remedied many shocking abuses and passed laws protecting their rights and giving them decent and comfortable working conditions.

It was during this period, too, that his unusual skill in conciliating opposing sides was brought to bear on the settlement of great labor strikes.

As chancellor of the exchequer in 1909 he won one of his most sensational victories, a stroke of state such as no one had dreamed of. Having made an extensive study of the way in which the Germans cared for their old people through national insurance, he returned to England to work for old-age pensions there. The opposition to his bill arose in connection with the necessity of raising the money to pay these pensions. True to his unchanging determination to fight poverty and wretchedness among the masses, he secured, against the bitterest opposition, a budget that levied taxes on the luxuries of the rich to pay for the old-age pensions for the poor. The passage of that famous bill is one of the landmarks in history.

But it was as England's strong war minister that the "little Welshman" was to do his greatest work. During the first days of gathering war clouds Lloyd George was a man of peace. After the invasion of Belgium by the Germans, he did not hesitate for a minute to throw his influence on the side of war, and, the decision once made, he gave himself entirely to the cause.

"I can understand," said he, "a man opposing war, but I cannot understand his waging war with half a heart."

Lloyd George decided that, in order to win the war, the cabinet must have more power. This was opposed

by the prime minister, and he resigned his office. Nothing remained but for the king to send for Lloyd George, who took his place at the helm.

From the beginning Lloyd George had feared a long war. When the French had checked the German advance and defeated them in the Battle of the Marne, September, 1914, and the English were saying that the war was over, Lloyd George was not so optimistic. He knew the strength of the Germans and, instead of indulging in any dreams of early victory, he went on preparing for a long, hard struggle.

The retreating Germans entrenched themselves before the French and English could drive them out of France, and for four years the deadly struggle for victory on the western front went on with little change in the line but with great sacrifice of life.

When America entered the war in 1917, in protest against Germany's renewed submarine warfare, the number of Germany's enemies greatly increased. Germany, with her allies, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria, was at that time opposed by France, Great Britain (and her colonies of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, East India), Russia, Italy, Belgium, Serbia, Japan, Montenegro, and San Marino, Portugal, and Roumania. After the entrance of the United States, Cuba, Panama, and Brazil, in South America, followed suit. Greece, Siam, Liberia, and China proclaimed war on Germany later. The war was waged both on land and sea. All colonial pos-

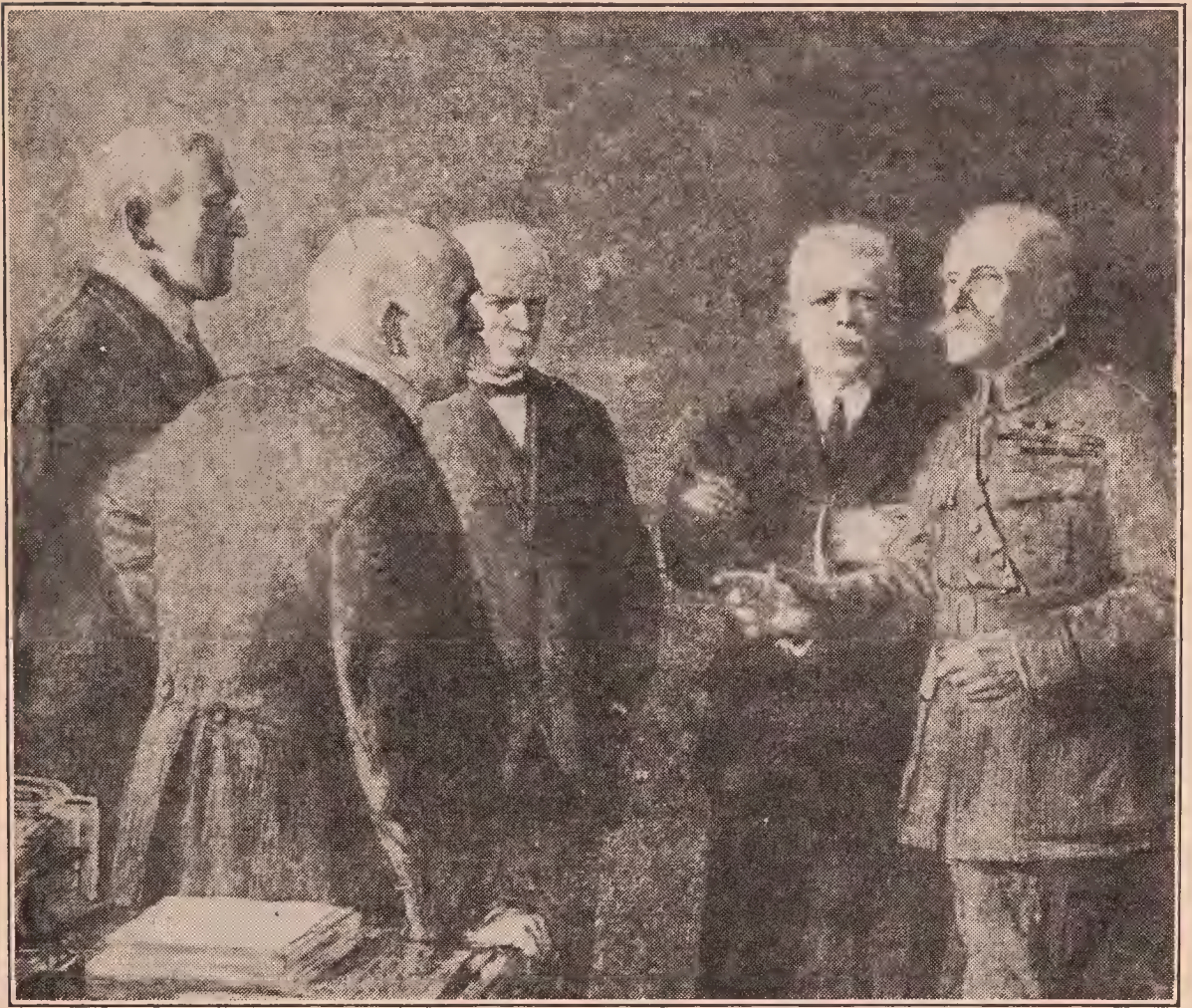
sessions were mobilized. It was, indeed, a *World War*.

Never has the world known such ruthless warfare. Modern scientific inventions multiplied the kinds of death-dealing instruments. Machine guns, huge cannon, airplanes, poison gas, liquid fire, submarines — all these and more made this the greatest slaughter in history.

By the first of July, 1918, about a million American troops were fighting with the Allies, and this number was increased to two million men before the war was over. Ludendorff, the German general, in commenting on the German defeat, says that its chief cause was the war spirit which had been aroused in England under the leadership of Lloyd George and in France under the inspiration of Clemenceau. Both of these dauntless leaders themselves do not hesitate to say that all their efforts would have been in vain had it not been for the timely arrival of American troops and supplies and the inspiring hope brought by the American soldiers.

On November 11, 1918, the armistice, dictated to the Germans by General Foch, commander-in-chief of the allied troops, was signed. That day the allied world went wild with joy. Bells rang. People paraded. Men shouted. Women wept with joy. In London, Paris, and New York there was a delirium of rejoicing.

As a result of this great victory over the autocratic



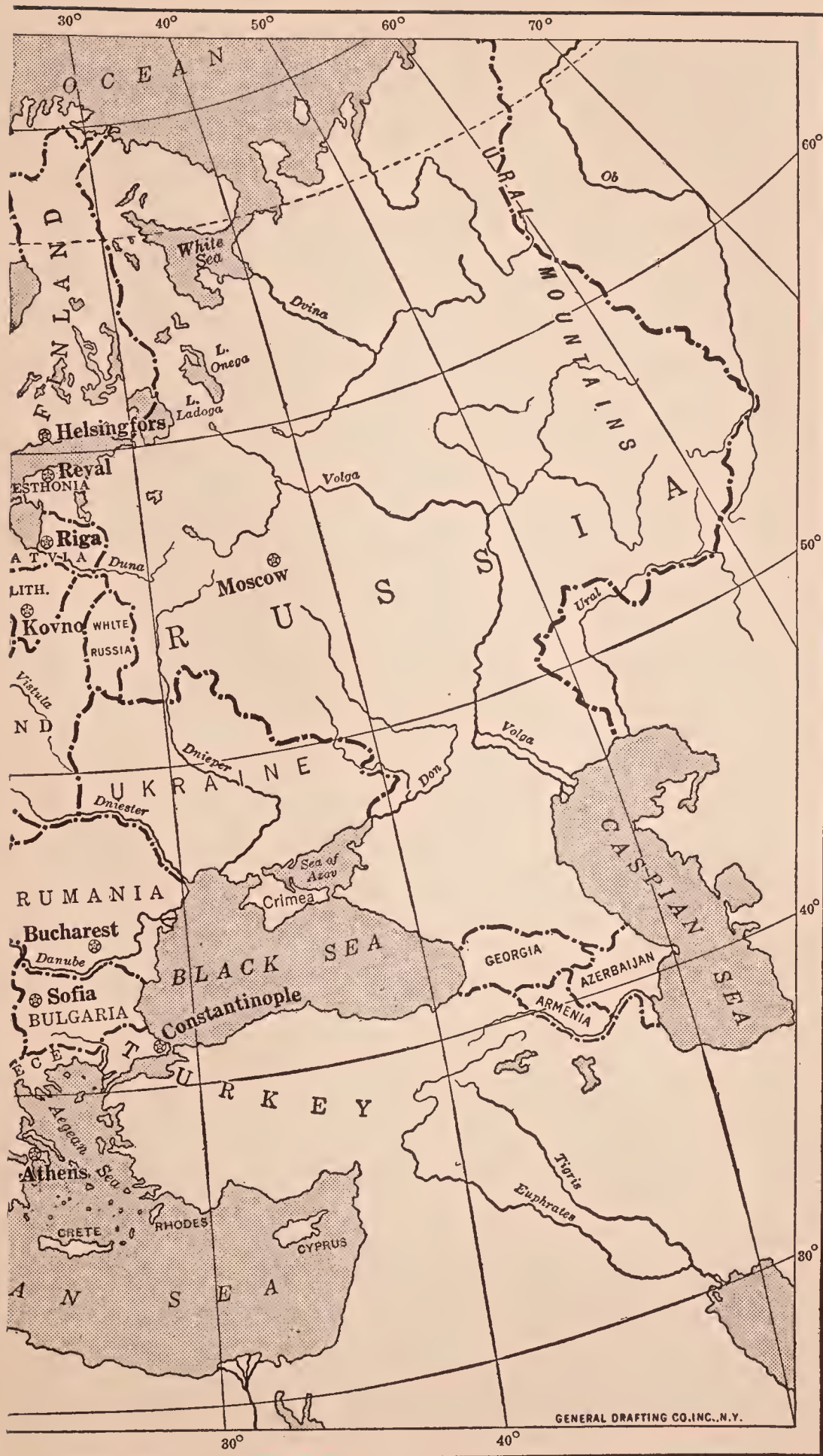
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MARSHAL FOCH URGING THAT THE SECURITY OF FRANCE BE PROVIDED FOR IN THE TREATY

armies of Prussia, the three most famous royal families of Europe fell — the Romanoffs in Russia, the Hapsburgs in Austria, the Hohenzollerns in Germany — and constitutional governments were established in their places.

But those who had borne the terrific burden of the responsibility knew that the war was not entirely over as yet, and neither England nor France was willing to relieve its great leaders from the difficult task of the making of peace. Paris was chosen as the meeting





place for a conference. In the stately halls of Versailles that had echoed to the tread of merry monarchs, fugitive royalty, and infuriated mobs, the first session of that memorable conference was held. Thirty-two nations were represented, and France's Grand Old Man, Clemenceau, was chosen president. The real work of the conference soon narrowed down to the Big Four, Lloyd George, the radical Welshman, representing England; Clemenceau, the fiery republican, standing for France; for America, its great war president, Woodrow Wilson; and for Italy, Orlando.

Upon the first three fell the burden of the work and the final drawing of the treaty. They had before them all the problems to decide that had been growing in Europe ever since the time of Louis XIV. America's aim was largely an ideal one — that of world conciliation and permanent world peace. The French, who had suffered most from invasion, very naturally emphasized a peace that would make them feel secure. England's aims were somewhat between these two, combining the ideal and the practical.

Lloyd George, with his genius for understanding people and bringing them together, was often the means of conciliating Wilson and Clemenceau. He wanted a stern peace, but a just one, and hoped to avoid the seeds of future wars in the terms of this treaty. He wanted to make a peaceful settlement with the new Russian soviet government. Just as Wellington had prevented Prussia from being cruel to the

French after Waterloo, so Lloyd George used his influence to prevent the French from crushing the defeated Germans.

All during these trying days Lloyd George lived a simple and homely life in a modest flat in Paris. His naturally sociable disposition found much pleasure in the cafés and theaters there. He got his diversion from the perplexing problems of the day, watching his son and daughter, who were with him, dancing at the afternoon teas.

Imperfect as all treaties are, it is yet true that this one was based upon the principle that military conquest and glory are no longer to be tolerated in a civilized world; and the map of Europe was remade, with an attempt, at least, to insure to all nations, large or small, the right of self-determination.

So terrible had been this conflict that in the hearts of many, and especially in America's President, there was the hope that this might be a war to end war. For this reason the formation of a League of Nations, that, through its representatives, would control the world in the interests of peace, was made a part of the treaty. He saw the League established, but his own country later divided on the question and ultimately remained outside.

On May 6, 1919, the final draft of the treaty was completed. It was a gigantic task and its pages made a huge volume. After six weeks of communication with Germany, the German Assembly ratified the treaty

and the German envoys signed it at Versailles, June 29.

When Lloyd George returned to England, he spoke in defense of the treaty and won a unanimous ratification of parliament on July the third. He had achieved peace for England, but he returned from the strain of the Peace Conference white and lined and looking ten years older.

When Louis XIV threatened the kingdoms of Europe with his wars of conquest, the treaty of Utrecht in 1713 brought peace by strengthening all the monarchs of Europe against the aggressions of one. One hundred years later, when Napoleon's threat of world domination was checked at Waterloo, the peace of Paris in 1815 was but another effort to make the world safe for kings. Another century later, at the close of the great World War in 1919, a new ideal entered into the peace of Versailles — that of making the world safe for democracy by bringing about a permanent peace.

America entered the World War with no thought of personal gain. She has continued since the war to aid in the relief and reconstruction of the civilization of Europe almost wrecked by the war. Her hope now, as then, is for peace — “a real peace based on faith and confidence and good feeling.”

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